

ANGLO- SOVIET JOURNAL

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A N D B O O K R E V I E W S , E T C .

THE ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL

The Anglo-Soviet Journal is the quarterly organ of the Society for Cultural Relations between the Peoples of the British Commonwealth and the USSR.

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*We deeply regret to announce the death
on January 25, 1951
of*

ACADEMICIAN S. I. VAVILOV

*President of the USSR Academy of Sciences and Deputy to the
Supreme Soviet of the USSR.*

Sergei Vavilov was born on March 24, 1891, and studied physics under Professor P. N. Lebedev. His special interests were in the fields of luminescence and optics; he was twice awarded a Stalin prize. He made a profound study of the life and work of Isaac Newton, and for the 1946 Newton Tercentenary Celebrations in London he communicated a paper on *Newton and the Atomic Theory*.

Academician Vavilov had suffered for a number of years from attacks of angina pectoris, which had recently become more frequent and more severe, and his death followed a sharp deterioration in his condition.

THE NEW PRESIDENT OF THE USSR ACADEMY OF SCIENCES

*Academician
Alexander Nesmeyanov*



At a general meeting of the USSR Academy of Sciences in Moscow on February 16, 1951, Academician Alexander Nesmeyanov was unanimously elected President of the Academy, by secret ballot, on the nomination of the oldest Soviet scientist, Academician Nikolai Zelinsky, and of the Presidium of the Academy.

The new President of the Academy is the founder of the Soviet school of the chemistry of organic metal compounds. He is also Rector of Moscow University and Chairman of the Stalin Prize Committee.

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NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN THE CONCEPT OF BIOLOGICAL SPECIES

By Academician T. D. Lysenko

to this day in biological science there is no clear definition of the concept of *species*. And yet every student of living nature, and particularly practical men—agricultural workers who deal with plants, animals and micro-organisms—are well aware of the fact that the whole of interconnected organic nature is made up of separate, qualitatively different forms. For example, the horse, the cow, the goat, the sheep; or wheat, rye, oats, barley, carrots; these are separate, qualitatively different forms of animals and plants. Ordinarily, under their normal conditions of life, they either fail to cross with each other or when crossed fail to give normally fertile offspring. Such physiologically incompatible forms are called species.

The very structure of living nature, which is composed of forms that are in many ways similar and at the same time discontinuous, distinct and specific, failing to cross in ordinary conditions, was a hint to naturalists that one species arose out of the other, that related species had much in common and that what they had in common, as the result of their genetic relations, might be termed generic.

That is why nature itself forced the dual nomenclature of species upon science, as for example: *Triticum vulgare* (soft wheat), *Triticum durum* (hard wheat), and others.

In pre-Darwinian biology there prevailed a metaphysical anti-scientific conception of the species. *It was considered that species were immutable, that they were completely disconnected in origin and development.* It was claimed that one species could not arise out of another, that each one of them was created separately, independently of the other.

By creating the theory of evolution Lamarck and especially Darwin refuted the fallacious assertion of metaphysical biology that the species were eternal, immutable forms, independent in origin.

In his theory of evolution Darwin proved that plant and animal forms—species—arise one out of the other. It was thus shown that living nature had its history, its past, present and future. That is one of the immortal merits of Darwin's theory.

But Darwinism is based on a one-sided, flat evolutionism. The theory of evolution proceeds from the acknowledgment of quantitative changes only and denies the fact that transmutations, transitions from one qualitative state into another, are obligatory and regular. And yet without the transformation of one qualitative state into another, without the appearance of a new qualitative state inside the old, there can be no development, there is only an increase or decrease in quantity, there is only what is usually called growth.

Darwinism established in biological science the idea of evolution, the idea of the origin of one organic form from another. However, Darwinism regarded development in living nature as a strict continuity. That is why in biological science—only in the science, but not in practice—species ceased to be regarded as a reality, as discontinuous qualitative states in living nature.

Thus, in *The Origin of Species* Darwin wrote: "From these remarks it will be seen that I look at the term species as one arbitrarily given, for the sake of convenience, to a set of individuals closely resembling each other, and that it does not essentially differ from the term variety, which is given to less distinct and more fluctuating [in their characters—T.L.] forms. The term variety, again, in comparison with mere individual differences, is also applied arbitrarily, for convenience sake."*

K. A. Timiryazev wrote the same thing: "A variety and a species differ only in time, there is no borderline possible here."†

Thus, according to the Darwinian theory there should be no natural boundaries, no discontinuity between species.

The theory of flat evolution reduces the development of the organic world merely to slow quantitative changes and does not allow for the appearance of new qualities within the old, for the further development of the new quality as a new combination of properties. This theory maintains that the time required for one species to evolve from another is so great that within the history of mankind it is impossible to observe the appearance of one species from another.

The same theory claims that there can in fact be no borderline between the nascent species and the old one from which it arises. That is why, in general, it is supposedly impossible to detect the appearance of a new species within the old one.

Despite the theory of complete gradation which maintains that there can be no borderline between species, such borderlines do in fact exist, and naturalists from time immemorial have been aware of it. That is why, in order to explain the discontinuity of species, Darwinism was forced to invent the so-called intraspecific competition, or intraspecific struggle. According to this theory all the intermediate forms, which supposedly filled the gaps between the species, thus forming a continuous line of organic nature, dropped out in the process of the struggle for existence, as less adapted forms.

Thus, in order to smooth over the obvious disparity between the theory of evolution and the actual development of the plant and animal world, Darwin resorted to the reactionary pseudo-scientific theory of Malthus on intraspecific struggle. This struggle supposedly arises as a result of the fact that more young of a given species are produced in nature than actually survive in the given conditions of life. It is on this basis that Darwin built his theory of the divergence of characters, the appearance of gaps and discontinuities in the continuous line of organic forms, which leads to the formation of easily distinguishable groups—species of plants and animals. Therefore, according to Darwinism, the borderline, the discontinuity of related species, arises, not as the result of qualitative changes, of the appearance of qualitatively new groups, of organisms, of plant and animal species, but as a result of a mechanical disappearance of forms, as a result of the mutual destruction of qualitatively similar forms linked with one another into a continuous series.

That is why all the adherents of the theory of flat evolution come to the conclusion that, theoretically, *species* are *not the result* of the *development of living nature* as disclosed by science and practice, but conventional signs invented for the convenience of classification.

Thus, there was and still is an obvious contradiction between the evolutionary theory and reality, the development of organic nature. Therefore

* Charles Darwin. *Origin of Species*. Sixth English Edition. 1902, p. 39.

† K. A. Timiryazev. Vol. VII, p. 97. *Selkhozgiz*, 1939.

Darwinism could give only a rough-and-ready explanation of the development of the organic world. But this explanation could not serve as an efficacious theoretic basis for the planned alteration of living nature to serve the interests of practice.

Although the outstanding biologist and zealous fighter against idealism and reaction in science, K. A. Timiryazev, could not in his time surmount the limits of the Darwinian theory of flat evolution, nevertheless he clearly saw that species were not conventional signs, but true natural phenomena. That is why he wrote: "These distinctions, these discontinuous links in the organic chain, are not introduced into nature by man, but are forced upon him by nature itself. This real fact demands a real explanation."*

But from the point of view of flat evolution no real explanation could be offered, and K. A. Timiryazev himself accepted the incorrect Darwinian explanation of this fact, assuming it to be the result of the supposed intra-specific competition.

It is only in our land of victorious Socialism, where dialectical materialism is the prevailing world outlook, that the possibility now exists of giving a real explanation of real biological facts, such as species. The collective-and state-farm agriculture offers every opportunity for the limitless development of materialistic biological science, for the limitless development of the Michurin theory, of creative Darwinism.

The Michurin theory—creative Darwinism—regards development not as flat evolution, but as the appearance of a new quality contradictory to the old one within the limits of the latter, as the subsequent gradual quantitative accumulation of its specific features, and in the course of its struggle with the old quality, the formation of a new, essentially different combination of properties conforming to its own laws of existence.

Dialectical materialism, developed and raised to a new level by the teachings of Comrade Stalin, serves Soviet Michurinite biologists as the most valuable and most powerful theoretical weapon in the solution of profound biological problems, including the problem of the origin of one species from another.

Both in nature and in agricultural practice there always exist distinctions, relative, yet quite definite, between species. This means that along with the similarities between species there always exist specific differences which divide organic nature into qualitatively distinct, yet interlocking, links, i.e. species.

We fail to find a complete continuous range of forms between species, as qualitatively definite states of living matter, not because intermediate forms die out in the course of competition, but because there never was or could be such continuity in nature. There is never complete continuity in nature, the continuous and the discontinuous always form a unity.

A species is a particular, definite, qualitative state of living forms of matter. Species of plants, animals and micro-organisms are characterised by definite intraspecific relationships between individuals. These intraspecific relationships are qualitatively different from the relationships between individuals of different species. That is why the qualitative difference between intraspecific and interspecific relationships is one of the most important criteria for making distinctions between a species and a variety.

It is wrong to state that a variety is a species in the making, and that a species is but a distinctly expressed variety.

A variety is one of the forms of existence of a given species, and not a step in its transformation into another species. A wealth of varieties provides

* K. A. Timiryazev. Vol. VI, p. 105. *Selkhozgiz*, 1939.

a given species with greater ecological adaptability and contributes to its prosperity and preservation.

The greater the number of varieties within a species, the greater the diversity of the intraspecific populations, the more can be gained, let us say, from cross-pollination to ensure the prosperity of the species and all its varieties.

As has already been mentioned, the intraspecific relationships between individuals differ qualitatively from the relationships between individuals belonging to different species. That is why the term species in biological science differs in principle from all other botanical and zoological terms such as genus, family, and so on.

It can easily be seen that the relationships between individuals belonging to different species of one and the same botanical or zoological genus not only fail to contribute to the prosperity of the species involved, but, on the contrary, these relations are competitive, antagonistic ones. That is why both in nature and in agricultural practice it is hard to find examples of populations made up of individuals belonging to different but closely related species, i.e. to one botanical genus, co-existing for any considerable length of time. Plant species often co-exist. But they are distant species belonging to different botanical genera. The co-existence of species belonging to the same botanical genus is only possible if the individuals of each species grow in beds or in clusters.

That is why the term genus in botany and zoology does not stand for the type of kinship that characterises relationships within species, but only betokens the direct connections in the origin of species belonging to a given genus. The term genus serves to denote morphologically similar but qualitatively distinct species.

The individuals of different species belonging to the same genus, despite their external similarity, under ordinary conditions fail to cross with each other, or when crossed fail to produce normally fertile offspring, i.e. they are physiologically incompatible. Besides, as has already been mentioned, the relationships between species belonging to one genus are competitive, mutually exclusive.

Species are links in the chain of living nature, stages of qualitative isolation, steps in the gradual historical development of the organic world.

In nature there exist qualitative specific differences between species, relative yet quite definite distinctions. It is these that must be found in order to outline correctly specific forms, groups of plants, animals and micro-organisms in systematics and taxonomy.

It is also wrong to maintain that species have no stability of qualitative-specific determinateness for any period of time. Actually, in nature, given species of plants, animals and micro-organisms continue to exist as long as the conditions the individuals of these species require are present.

Change in the environmental conditions of plants and animals, change in the type of metabolism, is the initial cause of the arising of species from other species and of intra-specific differences of forms.

The origin and development of new species results from such changes in the type of metabolism of the developing organism as affect its specific qualities.

This is confirmed by factual data obtained within recent years from the research work on problems of species formation in the plant world.

In 1948 the experiments of V. K. Karapetyan demonstrated that if the twenty-eight-chromosome hard wheat is sown late in autumn, some of the plants are very rapidly—in two to three generations—transformed into other species, into the forty-two-chromosome soft wheat (*Triticum vulgare*).

Proceeding from the genetic heterogeneity of the plant organism, previously established by Michurin biology, it was decided to look for grains of the forty-two-chromosome soft wheat in the spikes of the experimental hard wheat plants. As a result single grains of soft wheat were easily found in the spikes of the hard wheat, i.e. the grains of one botanical species were found in the spikes of another species.

On sowing the soft wheat (*T. vulgare*) grains from the spikes of the hard wheat (*T. durum*) as a rule plants of the soft wheat were obtained. If careful searches are made, grains of soft wheat may be annually found in some hard wheat spikes among the ordinary crops in many districts.

In 1949 searches were undertaken for grains of rye in the spikes of wheat sown in wheat fields in the foothill districts where rye is often found as a weed in the winter wheat crops. The reasons for the appearance of rye in the wheat crops of these regions were not known to science until recently.

The research workers V. K. Karapetyan, M. M. Yakubtsiner, V. N. Gromachevsky and others, with some agronomists and students, found single rye grains in the spikes of hard and soft wheat—i.e. of two species of wheat—in the fields in various foothill districts. More than two hundred such grains were found in 1949.

On sowing the grains of rye that had developed in the spikes of the hard and soft wheat, with very few exceptions varied yet typical rye plants were obtained. Only in a few cases were wheat plants obtained from the rye-like grains.

In all the above-mentioned cases neither the plants themselves on which grains of another species were found, nor their spikes, showed any external signs of an intermediate form. They seemed to be typical hard or soft wheat spikes. But the internal state of these wheat plants was no longer the usual qualitatively homogeneous one that characterises a species. This can be seen from the fact that the plants gave rise not only to wheat grains, but also to grains of rye, i.e. to grains of another species.

In 1949 the Lenin Academy of Agricultural Sciences of the USSR received a sample of oats, the panicles of which contained single grains of oat grass. In other words, the plant of one species—oats (*Avena sativa*)—gave rise to grains of another species, oat grass (*A. fatua*). In both our own and foreign literature it has been indicated time and again that oat grass appears in pure lines of oats.

In the branched wheat (*Triticum turgidum*) cultivated on the experimental fields of the Lenin Academy of Agricultural Sciences of the USSR, and in other places, some soft and hard wheats, oats, two-row and four-row barley, and also spring rye, have been found annually.

All our observations have led us to the conclusion that the branched wheat itself gives rise to all these admixtures.

In 1950 it was found that some of the barley plants growing in the crops of the branched wheat developed from grains in no way differing in their external appearance from wheat (*T. turgidum*) grains.

It has time and again been suggested in practice that species of agricultural plants may be transformed, or may degenerate, into other species, as, for example, wheat into rye.

On this question there was considerable discussion in our own literature as early as the first half of last century. It would appear therefore that the transformation of hard wheat into soft and of hard and soft wheats into rye are not new facts. All the facts put forward by us, however, have been either purposefully obtained or been discovered by purposeful searches.

In the past, before our investigations, the facts were as follows: among sowings of hard wheat there appeared individual plants of soft wheat, which, in resowings of the given wheat, multiplied more and more and tended to

oust the hard wheat. Similarly, among sowings of winter wheat there appeared individual plants of rye: in resowings of grain from yields harvested from such fields, the rye multiplied rapidly and tended to oust the wheat.

But men of science refused in principle to regard any such findings of some species of plant forms in sowings of another species as the result of the transformation of one species into another. Legitimate doubts were always expressed. It was not established that the plants had not appeared as the result of ordinary frequently occurring mechanical admixture. Nor was there any certainty that the initial seeds had been absolutely pure, i.e. that there had not been single seeds of another species among them; nor was there any assurance that the seeds of another species had not been brought to the fields where the crop was grown, by water, wind, birds, and so on; nor could there be any certainty that the seeds of the chance plants of another species had not been lying in the soil for a long time; and so on.

That is why on the basis of the former data it was impossible to prove that the initial cause of the different admixtures, and of certain weeds in the crops, apart from frequent cases of mechanical introduction, *was the origin of one plant species from another*.

None of these objections to the origin of one species from another holds any longer in the cases we have cited. In point of fact the single grains of rye found in spikes of wheat grown for several generations in definite conditions could not possibly have been placed there either by birds, by man or in any other way.

These rye grains were produced by the wheat plants and developed in wheat spikes.

The supposition that these seeds are of hybrid origin must likewise be dropped. It is known that wheat may, although rarely, be crossed with rye. In such cases, however, typical rye-wheat hybrids are produced, which are easily distinguishable from both wheat and rye by their external appearance. Besides, rye-wheat hybrids are as a rule self-sterile: they fail to produce seeds and are capable of producing them only if pollinated with the pollen of one of the parent plants, especially wheat. In our case the rye grains found in wheat spikes gave rise to ordinary normally fertile rye plants. These plants failed to manifest any hybrid qualities whatever.

The same holds true for the rest of the data we have mentioned.

The examples cited relating to the origin of one plant species from another are particularly valuable because analogous facts may be observed in corresponding fields every year. Similar data may likewise be obtained by growing plants in special sowings in experimental conditions.

So far all the factual material on the problem of species formation relates to the plant world only. As yet we lack the necessary factual data on species formation in the animal world. But we may rest assured that the further development of the theory of Michurin biology will before long make it possible to accumulate similar material in the field of zoology.

The data on the problem of species formation in the plant world permits us to state that, if not all, yet many existing plant species may arise anew in our day, and that in certain conditions they are repeatedly produced by other species. One and the same plant species may give rise to different related species. For example, one and the same species hard wheat (*T. durum*) can produce both soft wheat (*T. vulgare*) and rye (*Secale cereale*).

Changes in the environmental conditions that are of vital importance to the specific qualities of a given organism will sooner or later lead to changes in its specific qualities: one species will give rise to another. Under the influence of the altered conditions, no longer favourable to the nature (the heredity) of the plant species growing here, elements of another species

better suited to the altered environmental conditions begin to form in the organisms of the original species. Such heterogeneity in the body of one and the same plant organism, characterising different species, may in some cases be observed, by the naked eye.

That species may repeatedly give rise to other already long-existing species is explained by the specific heterogeneity of the plant body arising under the influence of suitable environmental conditions. If a plant of a given species is somehow placed in conditions comparatively unfavourable to the normal development of its specific characters, it is forced to undergo a change, and elements appear in it more characteristic of another species better suited to development in the new environmental conditions. The single specimens of the new species that appear inside the old one, being better suited to the existing conditions, begin to reproduce rapidly and are capable of ousting the species from which they originated. If this takes place in nature, the arising species reproduces rapidly and completely ousts from the given area the species from which it originated.

In agricultural practice, where cultivated plants are protected against weeds by agro-technical measures, things are different.

It has long been known to science that many weed species exist only in cultivated fields and are not found and cannot possibly live in wild nature. Thus, for example, if we let a field overgrown with many weed species lie fallow, it will comparatively rapidly, in some twenty or thirty years, completely rid itself of many of them. The weed species will be supplanted by plants that usually grow on virgin soils in that particular locality.

Weed species are produced both by certain species living in wild nature and by some cultivated plants; for example, that pernicious weed, the oat grass, may arise from oats.

When virgin soil is ploughed up, not one of the species characteristic of the virgin soil can find the necessary conditions for its normal development.

That is why sooner or later the species that lived on the virgin soil are transformed into others better suited to conditions of soil cultivation. The same holds true for cultivated plants when they are placed in unfavourable climatic or agro-technical conditions. Sooner or later they, too, are transformed into other species better suited to the prevailing conditions.

Some weeds have long been introduced into cultivation. For example, when in certain conditions rye is produced by wheat, it behaves as a pernicious weed that ousts wheat from the fields. That is why in such districts special measures have to be constantly taken to prevent wheat from being ousted by the rye: crops are weeded and wheat seeds are cleaned of the rye. In other regions rye has been cultivated from time immemorial. The same may be said of soft wheat. It has repeatedly been produced by hard wheat, and in such cases is regarded as a weed. That is why hard wheat is protected against soft wheat by weeding the crops. But soft wheat also has long been cultivated as a crop.

Many species of cultivated plants have been produced by other cultivated plants. This explains why no wild ancestral forms have yet been found for many species of cultivated plants.

By failing to create the required favourable conditions for the cultivated plants, poor agro-technics leads to the deterioration of their nature as regards yield and quality. At the same time poor cultivation favours the reproduction of different weed species whose seeds have either been lying in the soil or been brought into the fields with badly sorted sowing material. Finally, poor agro-technics may also create conditions for originating anew from cultivated plants individuals of a series of weeds.

One of the most urgent problems of agro-biology is to elucidate the

causes of the appearance of certain weed species and to show what environmental conditions promote their formation. Research work in this direction will not only help combat the existing weeds in the fields, but will prevent the production of one species of weed by another species of weed or by cultivated plants.

By creating new conditions for organisms, or by eliminating the influence of certain environmental factors, new species of useful agricultural plants can be created and the formation of weed species pernicious to agriculture stopped.

This is one of the important practical tasks, though by no means the only one, of the theoretical solution of the problem of the formation of species.

—Translated from an article in PRAVDA (No. 307, Nov. 3rd, 1950) and supplemented from the full text given in DOKLADY AK : SEL : NAUK IM : V. I. LENINA, 1950, 12.

**THE FOLLOWING WORKS ON BIOLOGY AND AGRO-BIOLOGY ARE OBTAINABLE
FROM THE SCR LIBRARY :**

THE SITUATION IN BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE: *Proceedings of the Lenin Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Session July 31—August 7, 1948.* (Foreign Languages Publishing House, Moscow, 1949.) 9/6.

SELECTED WORKS OF I. V. MICHURIN. (Foreign Languages Publishing House, Moscow, 1949.) 15/-.

A PEOPLE'S ACADEMY. By Gennadi Fish. (Foreign Languages Publishing House, Moscow, 1949.) 2/6.

PHILOLOGIST, ARTIST AND HISTORIAN IN THE USSR

C. L. Wrenn
Leslie Hurry
Andrew Rothstein

These contributions to the "Anglo-Soviet Journal" are supplementary to the joint report by the SCR delegation in the form of a letter to Mr. Denisov, the President of VOKS, copies of which are obtainable free (post 2½d) from SCR.

1

IMPRESSIONS FROM THE USSR

By C. L. Wrenn

BORIS PASTERNAK, in the earlier days of the Revolution, once spoke of poets as possibly lame because they had been walked over by "New Man." Once Mayakovsky declared in a moment of exhilaration that poetry should be Item 1 on the agenda of the Five Year Plan. Without attempting to reconcile these implied views as to the possibility of the things of the mind being planned by the State, I did succeed, when I visited the USSR recently, in forming some definite impressions which remain with me. These, however, it must be clearly understood, are but personal impressions, and make no claim to be infallible in facts, still less in inferences. I have arranged my impressions for convenience under rough general headings.

∞

VOKS : These letters are the initials of the Russian words for "All-Union Society for Cultural Relations (with Foreign Countries)". VOKS covers not only the whole Union by means of its local departments, but also relations with all of the principal foreign countries. As a representative of the SCR, I cannot speak too emphatically of the generous hospitality I received, nor of the freedom I was allowed to exercise in my arrangements throughout. The Russians I met on the staff of VOKS at the same time made their hospitality effective, and yet resembled the Russians I had known from literature by their complete lack of being in any way limited by a sense of planning or timing. Plans were made for me at my pleasure, but were constantly being changed with circumstances and the most human elasticity. This I found most agreeable.

GENERAL IMPRESSIONS : Both in Moscow and in Tbilisi as well as at Krasnodar in the Kuban country, I felt, physically and mentally, an indefinable sense of exhilaration. The people one met seemed pleased with life and, still more, to be enjoying sharing in a common purpose. The unity of the classless society seemed a long way towards having been realised; and at the same time there was remarkable flexibility everywhere. Naturally this flexibility, like everything else, must be considered as existing within the limits imposed by the general framework which may be loosely termed Bolshevism. Walking

about the streets and talking with all and sundry, I also got the impression that a feeling of pride in work existed in all classes. Waiters and cooks seemed to take the same pride in their work as doctors and professors. I was also struck by what seemed to me an extraordinary politeness, not merely to foreigners but to each other, among Russians of all types.

The man in the street generally seemed rather better informed, within the limits mentioned above, than equivalent people in our country. Stalin's recent pronouncements on linguistic matters and the controversy of which they form a part were the subject of intelligent conversation with all kinds of people, and the term *Japhetidology*, the name of the now rejected linguistic point of view, seemed quite familiar to all and sundry. And I thought it a testimony to the flexibility of outlook mentioned earlier that the whole point of view on the language question can suddenly change, just as now the question of co-education has been thrown open to renewed and vigorous discussion.

As an example of a limitation in the level of general knowledge I encountered, I would mention that generally even university graduates were completely ignorant of all matters pertaining to religion or the Church; and naturally too the knowledge of foreign countries and their doings, though material for this was in the university libraries, seemed to be limited, as one might have expected, among non-intellectuals. On the other hand, ordinary workers seemed well up in classical Russian literature as well as in the corresponding literature of the West, including Britain. On an open kiosk in a street I saw a book of Dickens, a volume of Lermontov, an abridged version of Marx's *Das Kapital* and a book dealing with the USSR Football Championship.

The extraordinary reverence for Stalin has almost (so it would seem to the foreigner) deified him in his lifetime, and appeared to me in some ways to have produced remarkably effective results. For the quality of reverence, which seems a necessary part of the human personality, now finds its outlet in Stalin: and people of all kinds seem anxious to give of their best in honour and gratitude to him. Thus, for instance, the exhibition of Stalin's presents for his seventieth birthday was like a panorama of all that is best in the arts and crafts, trades and professions of the whole of the Soviet Union. Weavers, for instance, from Azerbaijan had sent their most exquisite product as a gift.

This last point illustrates the extraordinary respect for tradition in art which now characterises the Soviet attitude. In Krasnodar, which had been levelled to the ground by the Germans, new cottages are being built on the outskirts according to the best tradition of local architecture.

On October Day in the Red Square, after the military display—which alone Western diplomats seemed willing to see—there was a grand civil demonstration. Here an endless procession deployed, representing every conceivable aspect of work—students' sports clubs, blacksmiths, painters, university professors, all displaying the emblems of their trade or profession. These reminded me a little of what the mediaeval guilds must have been like; and it seemed quite clear that this civil display was much more important to the people than the military show which preceded it. Such a display might well convert a stranger to believing in the working value of "Socialist Realism".

THE ACADEMIES AND UNIVERSITIES: Each Republic has its Academy of Sciences, subdivided into various specialist institutes; but what struck me most was the very close relationship between Academicians (the highest research workers) and the ordinary people. In Tbilisi the Academician who is the leading authority on Georgian not only wrote a simple grammar for schools, but also was quite ready to modify it in the light of suggestions

made by the schoolteachers who had to use it. These Academies work in the most intimate relationship with the universities, so that graduates doing research in the universities have all the advantages of working in the institutes of the Academies. In particular, I visited the Academy at Tbilisi, whose President, Muskhelishvili, members of the SCR will remember as a visitor to London some years ago. In interviewing Professor Chikobava, the linguistic expert whose initiative opened the recent controversy on linguistic theory, I was struck by the kindness with which he spoke of Meshchaninov, a principal leader of the defeated side. I was presented with the first volume of the Academy's Dictionary of Contemporary Georgian: and this reminded me of the amazing degree of freedom and vitality I saw everywhere in the development of native Georgian culture.

While regretting that the old Moscow University of Lomonosov is now to be separated from its scientific faculties, which are to be removed to a new twenty-six-storey skyscraper in the new Moscow, it was a pleasure to note the number of activities designed to help ordinary people with their education in the evenings. I saw advertised there lectures on classical Russian literature and music as well as on those of Western Europe. In Moscow University the whole of English literature is studied; and the more advanced students read *Beowulf* as well as studying contemporary English. The amount of humane or non-utilitarian study carried on would have surprised many who had only read the English Press on the subject. The system of grants to students, which is administered, not by a government department, but by the Rector of the University, impressed me by its good sense. University students, like other workers, receive a bonus (which increases with their seniority) for good work, in addition to the basic grant, while, at the same time, the grant may be taken away from a student whose examination falls below a second-class standard. The University of Tbilisi is situated among flower-gardens, and its very overcrowded library contains 1,000,000 books. Yet it has the usual new plans for spacious academic buildings and students' hostels. In the Old Slavonic department six students were doing post-graduate work in these languages; and the Philological Faculty was by far the largest. The knowledge of English subjects seemed good, though I was somewhat puzzled at the temerity of a student who was writing a Doctorate thesis entitled *Contemporary English Idioms Considered Historically*.

In Moscow I saw a good deal of Professor Morozov, the Shakespearian, who seems to divide his time between supervising Shakespeare productions in all the Republics of the Union, teaching in the University, translating Shakespeare (at present *The Merry Wives of Windsor* in collaboration with Marshak), writing commentaries on the plays, and supervising research work.

THE ARTS : I can only say, since space does not admit of any detail, that I received the impression generally of a remarkably successful blend of the highest artistic performance with a clear educational aim. In the ballet, where I twice saw Ulanova (perhaps as great a dancer as Pavlova herself), there was always superb dancing combined with acting of the highest order. *The Red Poppy*, a ballet of the victory of the Chinese Revolution, showed Ulanova as, in every most delicate detail, a Chinese girl with a Chinese personality, while at the same time the supreme ballet dancer. *Romeo and Juliet*, in which I also saw her, showed similar qualities. This latter reminds me of how considerable a place the classical arts of Western Europe find today in Soviet ballets, concerts, theatres, and so on. A performance of *Anna Karenina* showed outstanding care and exactness in preserving and illuminating period pieces of pre-revolutionary days, combined with very simple and sincere acting.

Soviet museums, of which I saw examples both in Georgia and in Moscow, show remarkable thoroughness together with a good deal of official informality. The two Tolstoy museums in Moscow showed every conceivable kind of background material to illustrate the main exhibits. There were historical documents to illustrate *War and Peace*, and paintings by Leonid Pasternak of members of the Tolstoy family. The Tbilisi Historical Museum of Material Culture, which included some most important archaeological finds of ancient Greek colonial life from Trialeti, showed the same excellence. In all too I was impressed by the enthusiasm of guides and lecturers, almost all of whom seemed to be themselves scholars or practitioners in the arts they exhibited.

On the other hand, to an Englishman, the almost universal air of educational "uplift" seemed strange at first. Everywhere one felt one was being educated by one's environment—even in the famous Metro stations in Moscow, where statues, literary scenes and uplifting slogans prevent mental apathy and hearten to continued zeal.

PERSONALITIES : I met all kinds of people, and was able, for the most part, to do my own talking and listening in Russian. I formed the impression that there is still the same infinitely generous and talkative variety of personalities as one's reading of Russian literature of the past had led one to expect. The vitality and individuality among the cultural leaders at Tbilisi was especially remarkable. I had more than one long conversation with S. Marshak, who, I suppose, shares with Boris Pasternak the right to the title of "Grand Translator". His discourse on *Poetry and the Worker*, which he gave us soon after recovering from a heart attack, showed amazing comprehensiveness. He seemed equally at home and interested in fairy tales, Burns-translating, and in "putting across" the best poetry to the workers.

CONCLUSION : I got the impression that the most good that could be done for the cause of peace and mutual understanding at present would be the exchange of academic and other cultural delegations. I felt that a non-political academic delegation, which wanted to learn and understand, and had not made up its mind in advance (whether Left or Right), would be warmly welcomed, and might open a more harmonious chapter. I felt, too, that whatever one thinks of the ultimate philosophical basis of Soviet Socialism, or of the diplomacy of the Soviet Government, there could be no doubt that the ordinary people there of all classes are well-pleased with themselves, are keenly working together with confidence for their common purposes, and are solidly behind their leaders. It was to me particularly gratifying to find the Russians of all types still as *Russian* as ever, and to find that the Georgians are now able to live a fuller and more productive life than has been possible since the days of their great twelfth-century queen Tamara.

2

SECOND THOUGHTS ON MY VISIT TO THE SOVIET UNION

By Leslie Hurry

A CONSIDERABLE time has now elapsed since my return from Moscow and Tbilisi, impressions have moved into perspective, the multitude of questions I have been asked have helped to crystallise them and at last I feel able to give a more considered account of my crowded visit.

In the first place the invitation to visit the USSR came as a great surprise to me. I am an artist and, so far as I knew, I possessed none of the qualifi-

cations I imagined to be necessary to rank for this privilege. Nevertheless, on being asked by the SCR if I would like to go, my answer was "Yes," for who would refuse an opportunity to go to a country of such great interest to every one of us?

So to the Soviet Union I went. In my mind was a picture, built up from the writings of Tolstoy, Turgenev, Dostoyevsky and Chekhov; from the music of Chaikovsky, Mussorgsky, Borodin, Shostakovitch, Prokofiev and so many others; from the ballet of Diaghilev and the famous Russian classical ballets, from the great films of Eisenstein and Pudovkin; and last, but not least, from the Daily Press of constant reminders and short memory, much maligning and little praise. My visit changed and remoulded all these preconceptions. It gave me something for which I can never be sufficiently grateful—an opportunity to see for myself the real Soviet Union.

It was indeed a crowded experience. My own list of the things I wanted to see and do was long; but my good hosts VOKS helped me in every way; and the great kindness, intelligence and patience of their interpreters and guides ensured that I saw even more than I had asked for—far more than I had thought was possible in so short a time.

We went by air, via the beautiful city of Prague, Lvov and Kiev, then on to Moscow, arriving at one of its several airports which, from its magnificence and grandeur, I thought must be the Kremlin! An airport or a station—first and last impressions—so often they set the key for memory; and here was the new Russia incorporating the old, the fairy story Russia, the great and bizarre. By the standards which count prefabricated buildings contemporary and modern, perhaps it ought to have been a formalist shack, but I, for one, enjoyed the lavish use of exotic marbles and gold in traditional forms.

A fifteen-mile run brought us into the centre of Moscow; we greeted the old Russia—the Kremlin—surrounded by the new, like parent and children, so strongly reminiscent and so vitally different. Here the old so splendid and cared for. The slums have gone; the architectural treasures such as the Kremlin and St. Basil's Cathedral are viewed across great open spaces which the traffic control keeps clear of both people and jay-driven vehicles; and they are flanked on every side by the vast buildings contemporary society needs. It might be argued that these new buildings are not modern because they use traditional forms. That may be, but they do harmonise with the old and evoke no antagonism in demanding notice. Moreover, one knows that when the people of Moscow feel the need for a change, they will not hesitate to replace them with what might prove to be the as yet undiscovered modern classic form. As it is, in Moscow and in Tbilisi, the buildings are sufficiently in touch with both yesterday and today to make them at once very comfortable to live in and far from ugly to look at.

From this it may be thought I have little patience with modern architecture. That is not so; but I consider the architect faces a very difficult problem when building in the presence of the old and particularly such a strange mixture of styles as the Kremlin and St. Basil's. Then again there is, I find, a strong demand in the minds of so many people that the Soviet Union should in every way throw the past into the dustbin and be different (modern). Why should they? I feel that Russia is the meeting place of the East and West, and when one stands in the Red Square (more correctly translated: The Beautiful Square) and sees the old and new, the east and west side by side, one sees (I think) what I mean when I say *this is Russia*. In thirty-three years what other nation in the world can show what she shows just in the rebuilding and the planning of her cities? What a splendid example she is, remembering all she has suffered in two major wars and the problems she has faced which might so easily have allowed the arts to decay

and architecture to muddle along with slum dwellings. If she had, one would have understood, as we understand why the beauty of London has not been rebuilt—that is if we do understand at all! Meanwhile if we want to see an entirely new Russia let us return in 200 years, and not expect it in thirty-three, the mere third of a century.

Nevertheless there are many things that are unique and new. That is obvious as soon as one arrives, and for me it seemed especially so. While the other delegates were meeting the Russians doing the job they did at home, I was meeting the Soviet artist. In the Soviet Union the artist is in full employment, massed with commissions and as essential as the bricklayer. He is removed from the obscurity and ivory tower which life in England forces on us. The artist is an integral part of society, not a romantic outcast from it—separate and an onlooker. For the Soviet artist all that has gone: he belongs and holds his own with everyone else from the miner to the atomic scientist. Much is written of the artist being “directed” and lacking “freedom.” I saw no evidence for this except that, in the USSR as anywhere else, once he is commissioned to do a work he is expected one way or another to carry out the wishes of his patron, whether it is designing a poster to sell a commodity or designing a ballet, painting a mural or portrait.

I could write at great length about Soviet painting and be very critical about much of the work of the Academy, but I have no wish to repeat what I have already written for their art newspaper *Sovetskoye Iskusstvo*. Indeed I argued with them about what I consider a weak naturalism and their failure to recognise the function of the camera, which has given so much freedom to expression in the plastic arts. The colour and form and the actual technique of painting is so often very weak, and although it is important what they paint, it is how it is painted that matters.

Alongside of this academic painting moves much work of the younger school and all the tremendous traditions of Folk Art (a misunderstood term, inasmuch as it so often conjures up strange bowls and cups and bits of linen). Here in my opinion lies the source for the future Soviet art. This work is given much prominence and in the exhibition of Stalin's seventieth birthday present one saw the wealth—an untapped wealth—of the work of the Republics in carpets, ceramics, woodcarving, sculpture, and so on. Then in the Museum of Eastern Art in Moscow there is the opportunity of comparing the work of today with that of the past. Here is exhibited work from the tenth century right through to the twentieth, showing the beginnings and whole subsequent growth and development of these arts.

The Soviet theatre is in every way on the highest level. Here one meets what I understand as realism, for in the acting there is the quality of the larger-than-life, the superman. Do not let me be misunderstood. I mean that the action takes on, as in the writing of a great play such as those by Shakespeare, a form greater than reality—in fact it is that rare thing *Theatre*. The ballet *Romeo and Juliet*, the new Prokofiev with decor by Williams, was of great beauty and the dancing is without a doubt of the highest standard. It was indeed fascinating to see the use of three-dimensional settings in the ballet. On this I was ready to be very critical, but I found that, with the aid of an army of stage hands, the movement was in no way hindered—and the Italian scene was at all times a brilliant imaginative whole based on the historic and traditional styles. The *Red Poppy* with music by Gliere has two very moving scenes in it of the Old China and the New—dream sequences which left the deepest impression on me. To describe these two ballets would demand a long article. It would need to be written with a vivid pen which as a painter I do not possess.

Then there was the cinema—the use of colour in films, the stereoscopic or three-dimensional films where one feels the audience should be in the

costume of the players; a fascinating evening's entertainment, folk-dancing; the concerts; the meetings with artists, writers and others; and the flight to Tbilisi. This last was all too brief: and yet how much we crammed into that twenty-four hours! The magnificent National Museum of Georgia; an artist's studio; an exhibition of students' work; *The Fountain of Bakhchisarai* ballet; and the city itself with its eastern splendour—I despair of describing any of this and can only hold to the memory as one of the richest and most precious experiences life has brought me.

And yet it needs to be described. Perhaps what was most disturbing of all was the awareness of our ignorance of this great people and what they are doing in the fields of art and culture. The Soviet artist knows what we are doing, he can discuss our work, trace our development, mark our progress; but of him and his we are embarrassingly unknowing. More than that, we are cut off from him by barriers of misrepresentation and misconception. Here in England the impression has grown that the Soviet artist is bound by hard and fast rules, that he lacks freedom and must work to order. It just is not true. That he has little spare time is a fact, but that is because he is fully occupied with commissioned work; that his work is subjected to a constant stream of criticism and exhaustive discussion is also true, but this criticism and discussion is his strength and opens up continually to him new lines of approach in every field of his work.

I repeat what I said earlier. The Soviet artist and his work are integral parts of Soviet society. He has a job to do that is part and parcel of life, and he takes his place with his fellows in the building of it.

[*Further information on the commissioning of paintings, the provision of studios and materials, stipends and social services generally, may be obtained from the SCR Library.*]

3

CULTURE IN THE SOVIET FACTORY

By Andrew Rothstein

OF the many remarkable things to be seen in the USSR nowadays none is more striking than the interpenetration of work and culture. On the evening of November 11, 1950, as a group of British delegates, including myself, were walking through the spacious anteroom of the Kharkov Railwaymen's Palace of Culture—a handsome four-storey cement and glass building in "constructivist" style—my eye was caught by the following notice:

EVENING UNIVERSITY OF LITERATURE AND ART
Tuesdays from October 3, 1950. Free Lecture Courses.

1. Russian Classical Literature.	2. Soviet Literature.
3. West European Literature.	4. Music & Painting.
5. History of Russian & Soviet Drama.	6. Soviet Cinema Art.

We had already been dazzled by the variety of interests served by this Palace of Culture. One section—a whole floor—was fitted up as a "House of Technique," with a series of lecture-halls and demonstration-rooms, in which railwaymen of all grades could hear lectures by railway engineers and skilled men, see applied the higher technique of their industry, and follow regular courses of study enabling them to advance to more skilled (and better-paid) work. In this department was a "Children's Technical Station," in which boys and girls were studying—after school hours—the whole railway business, from engine-driving and repairing of rolling-stock to the theory of maintenance and the compiling of traffic time-tables.

Children were there for other purposes also. In the big Pioneer Room we found a large group being trained in ballet, and very painstakingly too.

In the Children's Art Studio there were many specially gifted "young painters"—drawn from the art classes in the schools of the Lenin Borough (in which the Palace is situated)—getting a life lesson. Farther on we saw the hall of the Children's Musical School—again a voluntary, spare-time institution—with weekly classes (all instruments provided, and available at all other times) in piano, violin, accordion and singing. Notices showed that, apart from these, there were nine children's "circles" at work—aircraft modelling, model seacraft, radio, recitation [*khudozhestvennoye slovo*], embroidery, "friends of books", photography, dressmaking, chess and draughts. Their membership was over 500, drawn from the immediate neighbourhood. The Palace of Culture's library of 16,000 volumes has an active children's section.

The adults were being prepared for the Evening University by a network of twelve "collectives of amateur art" of their own. Subjects included drama, ballet, painting and sculpture, music (choir, vocalists, string-orchestra, Ukrainian folk-instruments), Russian and Ukrainian literature, as well as more prosaic matters. A lovely theatre with restrained decoration in grey and fawn, soft seats and deep carpets throughout, and stage equipment equal to that of the most up-to-date Western theatres, could accommodate 1,700 at a sitting—and posters in the ample foyer showed that the most famous Soviet companies perform there. What they call in the Soviet Union (with some justification) "artistic films" are shown in the theatre, technical and scientific films in the "House of Technique."

The delegation had already seen the *Pravda* workers' Palace of Culture in Moscow, a factory club in Tbilisi, and another Palace—even more imposing than that of the railwaymen—in Kharkov itself (at the Tractor Works). Yet with all our many impressions of the variety of studies and recreation available to the workers in these institutions, owned and organised by the trade unions, the lecture-list of the Evening University, providing as it did a systematic guide for the worker that took him into the fields of history and theory, was almost startling. It reminded me that there was some prophecy, too, by William Morris which Soviet initiative of this kind seemed to bear out in a very vivid way. Since returning to London, I have looked it up—his lecture *Useful Work versus Useless Toil*, delivered in 1884. He wrote of the consequences of putting into the hands of the community "the means of making labour fruitful, the capital, including the land, machinery, factories, and so on". It would be the first step towards making labour attractive:

"The very factory system, under a reasonable order of things . . . would at last offer opportunities for a full and eager social life surrounded by many pleasures. The factories might be centres of intellectual activity also, and work in them might well be varied very much: the tending of the necessary machinery might to each individual be but a short part of the day's work. The other work might vary from raising food in the surrounding country to the study and practice of art and science."

In an article the same year, *Work in a Factory as it Might Be*, Morris showed how he saw this "study and practice"—children so inclined being "gradually and without pain, amidst their book-learning, drawn into technical instructions which would bring them at last into a thorough apprenticeship for their craft": the grown man with "every opportunity to practise the niceties of his craft, if he be so minded, to carry it to the utmost degree of perfection", with similar opportunities "to study, as deeply as the subject will bear, the science on which his craft is founded"; and, finally, a good library and help in study, "so that the worker's other voluntary work may be varied by the study of general science or literature"—with drama, music and other recreation as well. [*William Morris, Artist, Writer, Socialist*, by May Morris, Vol. 2, pp. 136-7.]

Morris was convinced that, working in such conditions, most men "would find themselves impelled towards the creation of beauty—and would find their opportunities for this under their hands . . . these would *amuse* themselves by ornamenting the wares they make" [Ibid, p. 138]. Mr. Hurry, in his article, has shown how we found the *beginnings* of such an impulse at the exhibition of gifts to Stalin on his birthday. Morris was, furthermore, certain that beauty would come into the factory. "Nor can I see why the highest and most intellectual art, pictures, sculpture and the like should not adorn a true palace of industry . . . that beauty of surroundings, and the power of producing beauty, which are sure to be claimed by those who have leisure, education and serious occupation" [Ibid, p. 139]. In the Moscow Metro, in the commissions for artists from the factory and the trade union, the delegation saw, as Mr. Hurry has related, the *beginnings* of this also.

At every factory the British delegates visited, they found ample evidence of "the study of general science or literature" by the workers as part of the establishment. At the Kharkov Railwaymen's Palace of Culture we saw a handsome poster, in grey and red, headed:

**Trade Union of Workers in Railway Transport
Line Committee of the Southern Railway**
CALENDAR OF CULTURAL, EDUCATIONAL AND ART ACTIVITIES
1—30 November, 1950

Here are some of the lectures and readings organised by the Palace of Culture (specifically apart from the activities of the "collectives") for the period following the anniversary celebrations. It should be noticed that to some extent the programme was influenced by the forthcoming elections to the local Soviets on December 17:

*Wednesday 8 : (Theatre) Film—The Third Attack. 1 p.m.—3 p.m.
Opera—Eugene Onegin (by Kharkov Theatre of Opera and Ballet). 8 p.m.*
(Invalids' Hospital) **Concert**—by Children's Art Circles.

*Thursday 9 : (Wagon Shop) **Lecture**—The American Way of Life (by lecturer of Kharkov Transport Engineering Institute). 12 noon.*

*Friday 10 : Radio Lecture (over Palace of Culture network)—Working Methods of Comrade Kaidalov, technical clerk at Kharkov Sorting Yard. 6 p.m.
(Pioneer Hall) **Lecture**—Development of Will and Character in Children. 7 p.m.
(Car Conductors' Rest Room) **Stakhanovite Lecture**—My Experience of Winter Work. 9 a.m.
("Red October" Hostel) **Lecture for Electors**—Lenin and Stalin as Organisers and Leaders of the C.P. and the Soviet People. 7 p.m.*

*Saturday 11 : (Lecture Hall) **Lantern Lecture** for Electors of Polling Districts 10 and 30—Building Jobs of Communism (the new hydro-electric schemes). 7 p.m.
(Pioneer Hall) **Seminar** for Pioneer Leaders in Local Schools. 6 p.m.
(October Rail Depot) **Lecture**—Rules for Taking Locomotives out of Medium and Capital Repair. 9 a.m.*

*Sunday 12 : (Lecture Hall) **Lecture** for Young Electors—The Soviet State. Followed by **Concert** by Variety Collective of Palace of Culture. 6 p.m.
(Locomotive Shop) **Lecture**—The Soviet Electoral System. 6 p.m.*

*Monday 13 : (Theatre) **Lecture**—The Struggle for Rational Work. (Illustrated by scientific and technical films.) 6 p.m.*

*Tuesday 14 : (Kharkov Goods Station) **Lecture**—The Korean People's Democratic Republic. 6 p.m.
(Reading Room) **Lecture No. 6** of the Evening University of Literature and Art—The Fourteenth Century Theatre. 7 p.m.*

*Wednesday 15 : (Scientific Bureau) **Lecture**—All-metal Wagons and their Maintenance. 1 p.m.*

(2nd Building Site) **Lecture**—*Soviet Ukraine during the Fourth Five-year Plan.* 7 p.m.
 (Reading Room) **Literary Evening**—*Leo Tolstoy.* 7 p.m.
 (Wagon Shop) **Lecture**—*Was there a Beginning and will there be an End of the World?* 12 noon.

Thursday 16: (Pioneer Hall) **Pioneer Thursday.** 4 p.m.
 (Lecture Hall) **Meeting** of young railwaymen in their first winter with old hands, to pass on experience of work in winter conditions. 6 p.m.
 (Wagon Repair Works) **Lecture**—*The Sun and the Use of Solar Energy.* 7 p.m.
 (Kharkov Sorting Yard) **Stakhanovite Thursday.** *Experience in Rapid Metal-cutting.*

Friday 17: **Radio Talk** (Palace Network) by senior signalman Zubkov of Kharkov Passenger Station—*My Experience of Work in Winter Conditions.*
Lecture—*The Vatican, Bastion of World Reaction.* 6 p.m.
Lecture—*Atomic Energy and its Uses.* 12.0 noon.

Saturday 18: (October Depot) **Lecture**—*Ways of Economising Fuel on Locomotives.* 9 a.m.
 (Wagon Repair Works) **Lecture** for Young Electors—*The Soviet Electoral System.* 7 p.m.
 (Pioneer Hall) **Seminar** for Chairmen of Troop Councils of Lenin Borough Pioneers. 6 p.m.

Sunday 19: (Lecture Hall) **Lecture** for Electors—*The International Situation.* 6 p.m.
 (6, 7 and 18 Polling District Rooms) **Lecture**—*What the Stalin Constitution Has Brought Youth.* Followed by Concert of Amateur Art.

Monday 20: (Theatre) **Evening** for Kharkov young railwaymen on the theme *World Youth in the Fight for Peace.* Followed by Concert of Amateur Art.
 (Wagon Repair Works) **Lecture**—*Further Strengthening of the Soviet Family.* 12 noon.

Tuesday 21: Reading Room) **Lecture No. 7** of the Evening University of Literature and Art—*The Work of the Composer Glinka.* 7 p.m.
 (Locomotive Shop) **Lecture**—*Science and Superstition.* 7 p.m.

Wednesday 22: **Lecture** for Women Electors—*Successes of the Soviet People in Fulfilling the Post-war Five-Year Plan.* 7 p.m.

Thursday 23: (Pioneer Hall) **Pioneer Assembly** on *The Stalin Constitution.* 5 p.m.
 (Lecture Hall) **Lecture**—*The Flourishing of Science and Culture in the USSR.* 7 p.m.

Friday 24: **Radio Lecture** (Palace Network)—*Dulnev's Method of Mechanisation.* 6 p.m.
 (Pioneer Hall) **Lecture**—*Family Training of the Child for Work.* 7 p.m.

Saturday 25: (Pioneer Hall) **Evening** for Participants in Children's Amateur Art Circles—*Life and Works of the Composer Chaikovsky.* 6 p.m.
 (33rd Polling District) **Lecture**—*The Social and State Structure of the USSR.* Followed by Concert of Amateur Art of Palace of Culture. 6 p.m.

Sunday 26: (Lecture Hall) **Lecture**—*Friendship of the Peoples of the Soviet Union the Pledge of its Invincibility.* Followed by Concert of Amateur Art by the 5th Railway School. 6 p.m.

Monday 27: (Theatre) **Performance** by the Collective of Russian Drama—*Surov's Signal Green.* 8 p.m.

Tuesday 28: (Theatre) **Performance** by the Collective of Ukrainian Drama—*Tobolevich's Untalented.* 7 p.m.
 (Reading Room) **Lecture No. 8** of the Evening University of Literature and Art. 7 p.m.

Wednesday 29: (Theatre) Third Day of **Display of Amateur Art** of the Palace of Culture. 8 p.m.

Thursday 30: (Theatre) Fourth Day of **Display of Amateur Art.** 8 p.m.

In the *Pravda* House of Culture, serving the 5,000 workers engaged in producing two daily newspapers and a number of literary and other periodicals, the programme for the period 1-15 November 1950 showed—as might have been expected—a marked bias towards literature. Apart from meetings, concerts and plays specifically connected with the revolutionary

anniversary and the elections, the workers and their families could see and hear the following (interspersed with a series of evening concerts for neighbouring works):

Wednesday 1: For workers in the binding and despatch departments. **Reading:** by Emerita Artist of the RSFSR Efron—*Kirill Izvekov* (from Fedin's novel). 11 a.m.—12.30 p.m.

For building workers of the *Pravda Press*, in the hostel. **Reading:** from A. Tolstoy's novel *The Road to Calvary*. 7 p.m.

Thursday 2: For workers in the offset, despatch and other departments. **Reading:** by Artist of Moscow Philharmony Myshkin—from the Soviet poets, in the cycle *The Struggle for Peace*. 10.50 a.m.—1 p.m. (At the election rooms) **Lecture—Great Building Jobs of the Stalin Era.** 7 p.m.

Friday 3: Mobile Group—**Concert of Amateur Art** for Metro Building Workers.

Wednesday 8: **Film matinees** for children. 11 a.m., 12.45 p.m., 2.30 p.m.

Evening for youth of the *Pravda Combinat*. 1. Report. 2. Three one-act Soviet plays.

Thursday 9: **Evening** for *Pravda* building workers. 1. Report. 2. Ostrovsky's comedy *Belugin's Marriage* (by the Drama Collective).

Friday 10: **Evening** for general public (repeat of Wednesday's programme).

Saturday 11: **Films** at 5 p.m., 7 p.m. and 9 p.m. 1. Newsreel—*Sportsmen of Soviet Armenia*. 2. New film—*The Council of the Gods*.

Sunday 12: **Children's matinees**—Documentary colour film *The Forest Story* (three showings).

Evening—Repeat of Saturday's film programme.

Monday 13: **Lecture** for those studying the History of the CPSU—No. 1: 1883-1904. 5 p.m.

Popular scientific films from the *Our Fatherland* cycle—1. *Alma-Ata*. 2. *Borovoye*. 3. *In the Forests of Meshchera*. 4. *Zvenigorod*. 5. *Lake Taimyr*. 6. *Sea Kotik Island*. 5.15 p.m.

Tuesday 14: **Film—The Secret Mission.** 5 p.m., 7 p.m. and 9 p.m.

Wednesday 15: (Hostel for Building Workers) **Readings:** From Nikolayeva's novel *Harvest*. 7 p.m.

Films—1. *Ballerina*. 2. Latest Newsreel. 5 p.m., 7 p.m. and 9 p.m.

The poster also invites enrolment in the adult collectives (literature, drama, ballet, vocalists, accordionists, choir, drawing and painting, wind instruments, piano class, dressmaking), in the physical culture and sports sections (gymnastics, volleyball, basketball, boxing, wrestling and so on) and in the children's collectives (ballet, drama, choir, piano). The general library, open daily except Sundays, has 30,000 volumes and 1,800 registered readers, apart from children—who have a library of their own. The library arranges excursions to museums and exhibitions "on demand from cultural organisers in shops and departments of *Pravda*". (Such organisers are elected in the Soviet Union by every group of twenty trade-unionists.)

At Kolomna, seventy-five miles from Moscow, I had the opportunity to visit the Palace of Culture of the "Kuibyshev" Locomotive Works, and to carry off a copy of its "Calendar" for September 1950. First comes a list of lectures:

Monday 4: *The Gradual Transition from Socialism to Communism*.

Tuesday 5: *V. I. Chapayev, Hero of the Civil War*.

Friday 8: *The Overcoming of Religious Survivals in the Consciousness of Men*.

Saturday 9: *P. N. Nesterov, Russian Aviator*.

Monday 11: *Armed Forces of the United States and its Strategical Plans*.

Monday 18: *The International Situation*.

Wednesday 20: *The Resolution of the Central Committee of the CPSU on the Repertoire of the Theatre and on Measures for its Improvement and for the Development of the Soviet Theatre*.

Friday 29: *The great Russian dramatist A. N. Ostrovsky*.

Then there follows an announcement that, in order to help workers raise their skill and to promote the introduction of new technique, rationalisation proposals and improvements, two series of "Technical Consultations" have been arranged—one in the Palace of Culture, the other in the

Technical Library of the Works. The two series, each of nine consultations (lecture, demonstration and answer to questions), are identical: but they are arranged in different order, so that a workman who has missed one has a second chance.

The seventeen consultants are all senior technicians of the Works—chief power engineer, head of the central laboratory, chief of the technical bureau, chief mechanic, head of the welding department, head of the rationalisation and inventions bureau, and so on. Their subjects follow their own speciality—power, metallurgy, cold working of metals, rationalisation and inventions, toolmaking, machine-building, and so on.

On a separate poster were details of a three-months' display—in three rounds—of amateur arts (dramatic, choral, dancing, orchestral music, folk music, and so on), to be held from October 1 to November 20, 1950, as part of the All-Union Display which was being organised by the Central Council of Trade Unions. No less than some 1,700,000 trade-unionists had taken part in such displays in 1949, I discovered in Moscow. In fourteen departments of the Works, and in the youth hostel, displays were scheduled in the first round, for dates ranging from October 11—31. The first prize was to be “a diploma of honour, a challenge shield, a set of string instruments, and 2,000 roubles for purchasing cultural equipment”: other prizes were of smaller dimensions but of the same kind.

I had a ticket and programme for the final (November 23) concerts—which, alas, I sacrificed on a wild-goose chase for a Works Committee meeting in Moscow, which was promised me but never materialised. The numbers included an astonishing variety of classical and popular music, folk-dancing, arias from Chaikovsky's and from Soviet operas, readings from Gorky and Chekhov, and a scene from *Eugene Onegin*.

In judging the significance of the system of “the study and practice of art and science” in the Soviet factories, three further facts should be borne in mind.

First, the number of factory clubs is constantly growing. It was 6,400 in 1940, 7,500 in 1949 after all the wartime destruction, and 8,000 at the end of 1950. Many millions of workers are being reached in this way—in collective farm clubs, too.

Secondly, these are by no means the only places where the worker and his family can see plays and films, continue their technical and general education, and discuss literature and politics. Even the children, at least in the larger towns, have increasingly numerous alternative centres for out-of-school activities of a similar nature—the Pioneer Palaces.

Thirdly, these focal points of cultural development for the adult must be seen on the background of a steadily advancing system of general education, in which secondary education for all is coming nearer by leaps and bounds, and in which *two-thirds* of the undergraduates in Universities and other places of higher education (the oracular pronouncements of British Cabinet Ministers notwithstanding) are the sons and daughters of industrial workers and collective farmers.

In the machinery of general education itself a not inconsiderable part is once again played by the Soviet factory—with its “Young Workers' Schools”, providing through after-work classes a full secondary education up to University entrance standard for young people who started earning their living too soon, and its “Tekhnikum” and local branch (or else correspondence class) of the appropriate industrial Institute, which jointly provide the worker who will study in his free time with a course leading to a technical graduate's diploma.

Here, too, William Morris would have recognised the *Factory As It Might Be.*

SOVIET DEPUTIES AND THEIR ELECTORS

By A. I. Tikhonov

SOVIET deputies are true representatives of their people, expressing their will and promoting their interests. They are the best people in the land of Socialism—innovators in all branches of national economy, representatives of science, foremost workers and collective farmers, the best representatives of Party, Soviet and business organisations. Among Soviet deputies are representatives of all nationalities and peoples of the country.

“The further development of the Soviet organisation and State”, Lenin said, “amounts to this: that every member of a Soviet should be bound to work constantly at the management of the State, in addition to taking part in the meetings of the Soviet—and then that the whole population, without exception, should be gradually drawn both into participation in Soviet organisation (on condition that this is done under the supervision of the working people’s organisations) and into performing public service in the management of the State.”

The Soviets of Working People’s Deputies, developing and perfecting their work, pay particular attention to measures for drawing the mass of the people into the management of the State.

As Stalin pointed out (at electors’ meetings in the Stalin constituency of Moscow, 1950), in the USSR “the functions of the electors are not limited to elections, but continue throughout the term for which the Supreme Soviet has been elected”. He further pointed out that the duty and privilege of electors was constantly to keep their deputies under control, and to impress on them that they must not in any circumstances sink to the level of political philistines.

For this purpose, among many other forms of connection between deputies and their electors, the systematic reporting-back of deputies to their electors, and the right of the latter to recall their deputies, are of tremendous importance.



SYSTEMATIC reporting by deputies to their electors represents the basic form of connection between deputy and elector; and it is one of the most important planks of Soviet democracy, reflected in the Stalin Constitution and profoundly differentiating it from the constitutions of bourgeois-democratic countries, where deputies are left to decide themselves whether they will report or not.

In our country the obligation of deputies to report to their electors was laid down in the first days after the October Revolution, and has been widely practised at every stage of Soviet development.

In keeping with the Fundamental Law of our State, many territory and regional Soviets and Presidiums of the Supreme Soviets in Autonomous Republics have in recent years pointed out to deputies the necessity of reporting to the electors. Some have only spoken of periodic reports, while others have laid down that they should be made after each session of the Soviet.

Thus Kuibyshev Regional Soviet at its fifth session on March 22, 1949, recommended “all deputies who have not yet held meetings in their constituencies to make reports, to the electors before the end of March, on the

work of the Regional Soviet and on their activity as deputies during 1948". Pskov Regional Soviet, at its sixth session on July 14, 1949, resolved that "in order fully to acquaint the electors with the results of our work during the last eighteen months, and the degree to which their instructions and proposals have been fulfilled, all deputies of the Regional Soviet shall have meetings organised during the election campaign to report to the electors on their work and on the work of the Soviet".

Most deputies reported last year more frequently than previously, but some reported for a period covering from one to two years, while others reported two or three times in the course of the year.

As a general rule, such reports are made at meetings of the electors in one constituency. It cannot be considered right that, as happens in some regions, deputies should report to the electors of several municipal constituencies at joint meetings, or at general meetings of workers and employees in offices and factories—since those present at such meetings may be living in different electoral constituencies. For example, in the town of Slavsk (Kalingrad Region) the population of six or seven constituencies is usually invited to attend the same reporting-back meeting, at which one of the deputies gives a report on the work of the Town Soviet as a whole, while the other five or six deputies report only on their own personal activity as deputies. Deputy Lozhkina, of Kirov Regional Soviet (from Kirov City constituency No. 8) reported in December 1949, at a general meeting of workers and employees of the sheepskin factory, although the majority of the workers and employees at this factory live in other constituencies. Urlasheva, a deputy in Chita Town Soviet, reported in November 1949 to the medical staff of the Railway District Health Centre (Polyclinic), while deputies Zhernosekov and Russin reported to employees of the Regional Agricultural Department.

In some territories, regions and Autonomous Republics, insufficient attention is given to this question of deputies' reports. In Krasnoyarsk Territory the executives of a number of district Soviets do not give the necessary assistance to deputies in their constituency work. For this reason only a few deputies in Bolshe-Murchinsky District have reported to their electors. In most of the districts and towns of Tambov Region the majority of the deputies did not report to their electors. In Stalingrad Region, only four deputies out of twenty-three in Kletsk District Soviet made reports to their electors in two years, and thirteen deputies out of seventy in the rural Soviets of Railway District.

This is not only a question of some deputies not realising their obligation to maintain constant contact with those who elected them, but also of the Executive Committees of the local Soviets not getting together material for the reports and organising the meetings. This would suggest the necessity of special instructions from the Presidiums of Supreme Soviets in Union and Autonomous Republics as to the procedure and periods of such reporting.

It would appear desirable that deputies in territory, regional and major city Soviets should report not less than once a year, deputies of area and district Soviets not less than twice a year, and deputies of town, rural and settlement Soviets not less than once a quarter. In addition the deputies should report through the local press and radio. Such reports should be both on the work of the Soviet as a whole and on their own activity.



THE instructions and proposals of electors are of great importance in strengthening the connection between deputies and their electors. The system of instructions, widely applied at every stage of Soviet development,

has produced documents of great political significance, determining the direction and nature of the work of the deputies and providing a yardstick by which the electors can measure it.

During the elections to the local Soviets in 1947-8 the electors adopted a great number of such instructions and proposals for the improvement of the work of the Soviet authorities. They contained quite concrete instructions to the local Soviets, as the machinery of State directly serving the needs of the population. Thus, for example, the electors in Altai Territory adopted about 12,000 proposals, in Moscow Region over 10,000, Leningrad 4,000, and so on. During the last two years reports by the deputies of local Soviets in Moscow Region to their electors have produced 246 supplementary instructions, in Kuibyshev Region 310, in Rostov Region 450.

In character these instructions by the electors cover every sphere of activity of the local Soviet, although for the most part they deal with the municipal services and cultural needs of the people. In the sphere of industry the electors proposed steps calculated to produce fulfilment of the post-war Five-Year Plan in four years, the broader development of local industry, an increase in the output of mass consumer goods and the improvement of their quality. In agriculture the proposals dealt with precise observance of the collective farm statutes, measures for further improving yields and animal husbandry, and the electrification of collective farms. In municipal economy, the electors made many proposals for improving public baths and town transport, extending the network of piped water supply and electric lighting, repair of roads, tree planting along streets, and the restoration of houses wrecked during the war or the building of new houses. Much attention was also paid in the instructions to questions of trade, particularly of developing trade in the countryside. A large number of proposals bore on the extension and improvement of cultural and social services. Others indicated the need for greater precision and effectiveness in the work of the local Soviets themselves, their executive committees and departments.

The executive committees of local Soviets frequently examine at their sessions the instructions adopted by the electors and consider ways and means of fulfilling them. As a result a considerable number have already been fulfilled, while others have been included in the plans of work of the Soviets, their executives and their departments.

The instructions adopted in the post-war period differ from those of earlier years by including pledges given by the electors to fulfil national economic plans, raise harvest yields, improve town amenities, and so on. Thus the electors of the thirty-second constituency at Omsk, on a report by deputy Mostova, pointed out to the District Soviet that it was essential to take steps to improve certain amenities and municipal services, but at the same time undertook in the course of 1948 to build pavements, dig gutters and repair certain roads within the constituency. The electors of constituency 198 in the town of Armavir (Krasnodar Territory) instructed their deputy Telepina to secure an improvement of the water supply to the population. When Telepina, during her report to the electors at the beginning of 1949, suggested that they might take part in building the new water-pipe system, they accepted the proposal, and the new system was completed within a very short time. The electors of Mikhailovskoye Rural Soviet (Shipunov District, Altai Territory) made proposals at a report-back meeting for the building of collective-farm clubs and for the electrification of the village. The Rural Soviet supported this valuable suggestion. In the summer of 1949, with the active participation of the whole population, three clubs were built in the collective farms of this locality, and a power station serving the whole village.

V. I. LENIN taught us that members of Soviets "must work themselves, themselves put their own laws into effect, themselves check what is the result in practice, themselves answer directly to their electors". On this basis *deputies are obliged actively to take part in the work of their Soviet and its commissions, work constantly among the electors and show good results in production.*

The most important duty of the deputies is to take part in the sessions of the Soviet and to work in its permanent commissions.

At the sessions the deputies exercise their right of decision within the competence of the Soviet, and examine and direct the work of their executives and administrative organs. The local Soviets at their sessions decide questions of the economic and cultural development of the region, town, district and rural district, adopt their budgets, elect executive committees and hear their reports, consider measures to promote the defensive capacity of the country and the preservation of public order, the observance of the laws, and the protection of the rights of citizens. The direct duty of executive committees is not only to call sessions at the times provided, but also to make possible the active participation of the deputies—since decisions of the Soviet, to be lawful, must have been adopted by a majority of its members.

Non-attendance at sessions prevents deputies successfully maintaining their contact with their electors, whose interests are involved in the proceedings of the Soviet. Yet sessions of individual local Soviets continue to take place occasionally in the absence of the quorum of two-thirds of all elected deputies which practice has laid down. The executive committees calculate a quorum on a different basis in different places. Some apply the out-of-date regulations for local Soviets, which stated that sessions were valid if more than half of all elected members were present; while others, guided by established practice in the work of local Soviets, consider them valid only if two-thirds are present.

In the regulations for the work of local Soviets which are at present being worked out it ought to be laid down that a quorum is not less than two-thirds of all deputies.

The distinctive feature in the work of the local Soviets last elected has been *the broad development of criticism and self-criticism*. This has made it possible to improve the work of the Soviets and their executive committees, with the deputies exercising their supervisory functions more effectively.

At the first session of Ulyanov Regional Soviet, in January 1948, when the nomination of deputy Danilevich for the post of head of the regional department of local industry* was under discussion, deputy Kuznetsov sharply criticised the work of this department and of local industry as a whole. "Our local industrial enterprises", he said "did not cope with their obligations in 1947, and did not fulfil their year's plan. This is a big defect in the work of our local industry. For several years in succession it has not been fulfilling its plans. Comrade Danilevich must make certain that the plan is fulfilled in 1948; and for this it is essential to alter methods of work and management in this important branch of economy."

At the eleventh session of Stalingrad City Soviet in November 1949, deputy Gorbushin stated: "We are fulfilling the instructions of our electors with comparative success; but we have serious problems which we have for several years seemed unable to solve. Take the water supply, for example. Here is the Volga alongside, yet in my district the people experience a great shortage of water. How often has this question been 'decided' at the

* Local industry comprises factories and workshops owned by the local authority, working on local raw material and fuel, and not planned by higher authorities. TRANS.

executive committee of the City Soviet, how many papers have been written about it—yet we still don't get the water in our settlement! There are big power-cuts still tolerated in the district. We haven't a single good well-equipped stadium in the city, yet in the electors' instruction there was a point about building stadiums. Then why isn't the instruction carried out? The people would take an active part in building a stadium, yet we don't tackle the question, we are prevented by various 'objective reasons'."

Criticism of the work of executive committees and their departments is also effected by deputies by means of written questions put down at sessions. This practice is followed in a number of regions.

Deputy Mazhayev, of Podbelsky District Soviet, Kuibyshev Region, put down a question to the district Executive Committee at the fifth session of the district Soviet, in October 1948, asking why instructions adopted at the third session, on June 30, that the agricultural department should apply the State plan of animal husbandry in the collective farms contracting for and purchasing cattle, had not been carried out. Comrade Vidmanov, head of the agricultural department, had not ensured the carrying out of this decision, and had thereby brought about the danger that the animal husbandry development plan in the local collective farms would not be fulfilled. Furthermore, deputy Mazhayev pointed out to the district Executive Committee the unsatisfactory fulfilment of the plan for fodder supplies in the collective farms—another decision of the district Soviet which the agricultural department had not been able to get carried out. In conclusion, he moved that the Executive Committee be requested to discuss these questions and to take appropriate steps to strengthen the management of this department.

In a number of other districts of Kuibyshev Region deputies put down questions at sessions of the district Soviets on measures to raise yields, on building and town planning, on electrification, cultural and educational work, improvement of medical aid, local trade, and so on.

At sessions of the regional and district Soviets of Vologda Region, during 1949, deputies put down questions on problems of sanitation and living conditions of workers in the State cattle farms, on the reasons for the unsatisfactory work of the schools, and so on.

Local Soviet practice has shown that in order to increase the activity of deputies at these sessions, and to reinforce their control over the work of the executive committees and departments, there should be legislation to establish the right of putting down questions at such sessions and the obligation to give replies to these questions verbally or in writing.

The drawing-in of the working people to the work of the Soviets depends to a great extent on the work of their *permanent commissions*.* Participation by the deputies in the permanent commissions is one of their most important fields of work: moreover, these commissions are a means by which the Soviets draw their electors into active management of the State.

The local Soviets, between January and March 1948, set up about 500,000 permanent commissions, most of them on the essential branches of their work—budget and finance, local industry, agriculture, trade, education, health, social welfare, municipal economy, town planning, and so on.

During their existence, the permanent commissions of the Soviets have shown that where proper attention is paid to the work of these mass bodies they became indispensable auxiliaries of the Soviets for drawing the masses into economic and cultural constructive work and into supervision of the

* In which, in addition to deputies of the Soviet, three to five times as many volunteers take part as "aktiv", usually on the nomination of trade unions, co-operatives, etc. TRANS.

work of the local authorities and economic organisations. Every possibility exists for the successful working of these commissions. During recent election campaigns the number of Soviet citizens active in public work has increased still further; and during the last three years the organisation departments set up by the executive committees of territory, regional and city Soviets have had much success in organising the masses for work with the Soviets.

The permanent commissions of many local Soviets do invaluable work supervising factories, collective farms, schools, hospitals and clubs, and making their valuable suggestions for improvements to the Soviets and their executive committees. At most sessions of local Soviets the appropriate permanent commissions put forward a co-reporter on all questions of an economic or cultural nature.

The permanent health commission of the Krasnoyarsk Territory Soviet has done a great deal to improve the work of health institutions in the Territory. It has investigated the fulfilment of the order of the USSR Ministry of Health for the unification of the hospitals and health centres in the Territory; it has checked the work of the State Sanitary Inspectors, investigated the position of medical aid to children, the preparedness of health institutions for work in winter conditions, and so on. The commission brought before the executive committee of the Territory Soviet such vital questions as the organisation of first-aid for children and measures for the further reduction of children's ailments.

The permanent commission for trade and public feeding of Rostov City Soviet regularly inspects the trading institutions and makes proposals for the improvement of their work. On the basis of proposals by the permanent commission for local industry and transport, the Executive Committee of the same Soviet took steps to improve the quality of output and to introduce new varieties of goods.

The permanent commission on questions of agriculture and raw materials supplies of Kirgiz Rural Soviet, Iribit District, Sverdlov Region, actively takes part in the preliminary working up of such matters for discussion at sessions of the Rural Soviet and at meetings of its executive committee. It promotes better organisation of labour, helps the collective farms to make better use of their technical resources and stock, draws the attention of the executive committee to defects in the work of the purchasing organisations and helps in the fight against waste of agricultural produce in the collective farms.

But while the majority of permanent commissions in the Soviets work well, some are unsatisfactory and some quite inactive.

The commissions must everywhere be the immediate auxiliaries of the Soviets themselves, not subsidiary bodies of the executive committees. It is therefore quite wrong that, as happens in some town and district Soviets of Kaluga region, the permanent commissions should report on their work to the executive committees. They should check in advance all main questions discussed at sessions of the local Soviet and give their own co-reports on the actual state of affairs in the sphere concerned.

From the regulations for permanent commissions laid down by the Presidiums of the Supreme Soviets in the Georgian, Azerbaijanian, Kirgiz and some other Union and Autonomous Republics, and also from the instructions of executive committees in a number of territory and regional Soviets, it can be seen that they have the following tasks devolving on them:

- (i) giving practical help to the Soviets in carrying out their own decisions and those of higher-standing Soviets;

(ii) checking within their own sphere the work of factories, institutions and organisations, whether by direction of the Soviet or on their own initiative.

(iii) ascertaining from the people their needs and requirements, working out measures to meet them and making appropriate proposals to the Soviet and its executive committee;

(iv) considering at their meetings statements by representatives of executive committees, managers of departments, directors of factories, heads of schools, chairmen of collective farms, and so on, on subjects with which they are concerned.

There is a wealth of experience accumulated during the ten years' existence of the permanent commissions of local Soviets, on the basis of which it is quite feasible to draw up regulations for their working—regulations which are badly wanted. In the Russian Federation, for example, the absence of such regulations has in some territories and regions led the executive committees themselves to work out "handbooks" for the permanent commissions.



CONNECTION between deputies and electors is also effected, during their daily work in the Soviets and their place of employment, *through interviews between electors and their deputies*, and by correspondence. Deputy Samsonov, of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federation, during his two years as deputy received over 1,000 electors. During their first year of work, the deputies of Irkutsk City Soviet received about 3,000 electors in a properly equipped "Deputy's Room" at the City Soviet. Deputy Kostoussova, of Berezov Town Soviet, Sverdlov Region, during seventeen years as a deputy has received about 20,000 electors.

It is essential that all deputies should regularly receive their electors, making a widely advertised announcement beforehand of the time and place. The executive committees of Soviets must give every help to the deputies in this respect, making it possible for the deputies to improve their theoretical grounding, supplying them with reference material and acting as a matter of urgency on statements by electors transmitted by the deputies.

Of great importance in organising this work is the existence of a "Deputy's Room". So far, such rooms exist only at the town Soviets and at the borough Soviets in large cities; but it is desirable that they should exist in all territory, regional, district and town Soviets. They should be well equipped and supplied with reference literature and the latest newspapers. Information should be available in these rooms on all the main branches of the deputies' work.

The executive committees of Soviets should pay particular attention to deputies' correspondence with their electors, seeing to it that those in charge of institutions and organisations to whom the letters are forwarded for action should give proper attention to them and meet the legitimate demands of the electors.



STREET COMMITTEES are invaluable aids to the deputies of town and settlement Soviets in organising the masses for direct action to improve and maintain housing and municipal enterprise, town planning, culture and education, and so on. Since 1934 they have been set up in nearly all towns and workers' settlements. Fifteen hundred have been formed in the Moscow Region, 2,350 in Sverdlov Region; and they have been extensively set up in Novosibirsk, Kuibyshev, Altai and other Regions and Territories. In

seventy-five towns and workers' settlements of Moscow Region, during 1948, the street committees organised 1,127 Sunday volunteer efforts. As a result the people repaired 38,000 square metres of roads, built or restored 568 bridges, and planted over 300,000 trees and bushes. In Nizhni Tagil (Sverdlov Region) on the initiative of the street committees the population in 1948 gave 143,500 man-hours of voluntary labour, planting 20,000 trees and bushes, cleaning out or digging 11,000 metres of ditches, building and repairing 110 bridges, and so on.

All depends on the proper organisation of the work of the street committees and on the constant guidance of their work by deputies of the local Soviets living in the street, and by the executive committee of the local Soviet.

Considerable importance is also to be attributed to *village meetings*, which make it possible for rural Soviets to draw the widest mass of the people into their economic and cultural work. Discussions at such meetings lead to the people themselves helping to build schools, hospitals and clubs.

In a number of territories and regions these meetings play a great part. In Archangel Region in 1949 there were over 3,000 village meetings, and in one district alone about 10,000 citizens took part in them. Village meetings are widely practised in Stavropol Territory, and in Moscow, Kuibyshev and other Regions. Deputies of the rural Soviets take an active part in calling these rural meetings and conducting their deliberations.

—Slightly abridged from *Sovetskoye Gosudarstvo i Pravo* (No. 11, 1950).

NOTE: See also A. A. Karp's article on *The Legal Status of Executive Committees of District Soviets of Working People's Deputies*, in a previous issue (*ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL*, Autumn 1950, Vol. XI, No. 3).

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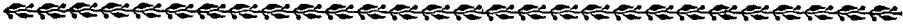
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NASTASYA



M. Isakovsky

WAS it not of you that the bards used to sing,
The bards used to sing here in our land ?

*The young birch is withered that stood by the roadside,
The green one does not rustle now the spring has come.*

Was it not you, Nastasya, still in your girlhood,
Who dreamed and wondered—does he love me or not?
Was it not you, Nastasya, in the church in winter
Who married your sorrow and your bitter want?

Was it not you, Nastasya, were so sternly told—
Everything in life is settled, foreordained,
The road you tread in future will be from stove to doorway :
For you peasant women no other road can be?

Tell then, tell, Nastasya, of your long ill-fortune,
All your sad grief, all your longings tell;
Tell how many times you have had food to fill you,
And how much of laughter this life of yours has known;

How many years you endured your husband's thrashings,
How often he has beaten your head against the floor,
How often you have prayed for the Lord's dearest mercy,
The Lord's dearest mercy, the wooden coffin-lid.



Tell it then, Nastasya, how you reaped by starlight,
Tell those waking nights in the harvest-time ;
Tell your pangs of child-birth on the thorny ground,
On the thorny ground in the damp stubble-fields.

Count, count, Nastasya, all the strength you wasted,
All the many tears that you here have shed ;
Speak then, speak, Nastasya, of all that went before this—
And speak, our Nastasya, of all that now is here.

Are not you the one now strolling dewy pathways,
Listening in joy to the rustling wavy wheat?
Are not you the one who found in our Kolkhoz lands
The longed-for holy treasure, the treasure of the fields?

Are not you the one who with nimble fingers
Caught the fairy bird, the age-old elusive dream?
Is it not to you that the white-haired peasants
Take off their hats, though there's a mile between?

Is it not of you the people speak with reverence
In the distant city as here at home?
You, Nastasya, you, for whose work and endeavours
Stalin in the Kremlin himself honoured you?

And did you not, Nastasya, then tell your sister-women
No man is more our friend the whole earth round :
He gave bread to the hungry, strength to the weak ones,
Joy to the people, through the thousand years to come.

With his own hand the woman's tears he dried ;
For our rights he stood as a great rock-wall . . .
No longer is there now a young birch withered,
A young birch withered in the early spring.

—English Version by G. ADAM and S. JACKSON

EDUCATION IN A TEXTILE FACTORY

THE Kupavna textile factory is widely known as one of the advanced undertakings in the textile industry. It was here in Kupavna [about 20 miles east of Moscow. *Trans.*] that, on the initiative of Maria Rozhneva and Lidia Kononenko, there began the remarkable movement for the most comprehensive economy in raw materials and care in production. The factory collective has twice won the honourable title of "Excellent Factory". For several years workers in the factory have been correctly fulfilling and over-fulfilling the production norms.

The factory collective is marking the great festival of the workers—the 33rd anniversary of the October Revolution—with fresh successes. In pre-October emulation they exceeded the socialist pledges they had given. During the eight months of this year [1950] the factory has economised 1.3 tons of wool and 12 tons of yarn. From the raw material saved they have produced 20,000 metres of cloth.

As a result of emulation within the factory, 184 brigades out of 205 have been awarded the title of "Excellent Brigade". 99.35% of the factory's output is first quality production (97.34% was planned for). In the all-union textile workers' emulation the Kupavna factory has won the Red Banner of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and the USSR Ministry for Light Industry.

A decisive part in achieving these high records of work was played by the well-organised exchange of the latest experience and by the mastering of the best Stakhanovite methods of work. On the initiative of the factory Party organisation, the Kupavna workers have set up a comprehensive education system. More than 90% of the workers have during the year completed the course of the "school for excellent quality and for economy in raw material", and 175 people have been, and 30 are still being, trained on Engineer Kovalev's system. More than 800 workers have been trained in the *tekhnminimum* courses [see Glossary], in short-term Stakhanovite schools, and in courses for foremen and for specialised workers.

The rapid and widespread dissemination in the Kupavna factory of the latest experience is explained by the high level of political understanding and the constantly rising standard of general education.

A kind of university has been set up at the Kupavna factory, comprising a young workers' evening school and branches of the Textile Tekhnikum and Institute [see Glossary].

Last year 220 people studied in the Party education courses, 200 in the young workers' school, 144 in the Tekhnikum branch, and 20 in the Institute branch.

This year the Kupavna workers have undertaken an even greater education task. They have decided to provide, within the next three years, seven-year education for all the young workers in the factory, and intermediate technical and secondary education [see Glossary] for all junior and middle grades. The whole factory can see cadres of highly qualified specialists developing.

Many ordinary workers can manage the most complicated technical calculations excellently; they follow the working of the latest complex machines and appliances with first-hand knowledge. Thus are being effaced through study the boundaries between mental and manual work. In the article below, the director of the Kupavna textile factory, V. D. Erofeev, describes how educational work was organised in the factory and the impetus it will attain in the near future.

—*Ed. Textilnaya Promyshlenost.*



OUR EDUCATION PLAN

By V. D. Erofeev

Director of the Kupavna Textile Factory

THE Kupavna factory collective leads a seething working life. To celebrate the great festival suitably, the workshops, the brigades and the sections are engaging in competition. Every worker at the Kupavna factory is striving to mark the thirty-third anniversary of the October Revolution by producing more than planned, by further economies in the use of raw materials,

and by improving the quality of the product. With the beginning of the scholastic year on September 1 there was added to the usual production indices a new one, the progress index. People are aiming at marking the festival by excellent results in work and study.

The opening of the new scholastic year has brought fresh animation to the factory. Except on Saturdays and Sundays, every morning, when the on-shift is engaged in production, off-duty spinners, weavers and so on go to the numerous lecture-rooms. Sharp at 8 a.m. the workers, young and middle-aged, armed with all the necessary equipment for study, take their places at the classroom desks. They study under the guidance of skilled teachers till 12 noon. The workers on the other shift take their classes in the evening, from 7.30 till 10.30.

Almost all the workers at the Kupavna factory are now engaged in study. The scale of the studies may be judged by the fact that we had to organise twenty-nine study groups, of which twenty-five are parallel courses. To cope with the demand for premises, we arranged five classrooms in the technical cabinet [see Glossary] and adapted the factory meeting hall and one room at the club as lecture-rooms. We also use premises in the ten-year and seven-year secondary schools [see Glossary] of the township [*poselok*].

Three educational bodies—the Young Workers' Evening School, the evening Textile Tekhnikum, and the Textile Correspondence Institute—are responsible for these studies. These educational bodies have already been functioning at the factory for several years. The Young Workers' School and the Tekhnikum are fully developed, and several classes have already graduated from them. At the branch of the Textile Correspondence Institute the first two courses are being held. We have a small group of workers who have not completed their primary education: they study separately, their studies being in every way facilitated. All students in elementary groups have been transferred to work on the same shift and supplied with all the equipment required.

The extensive scale of study in our factory is largely explicable by the fact that people have from personal experience and from the example of their comrades become convinced of the enormous importance of education. Who is it that works best at production? The one that studies best! This is apparent from the example of our best Stakhanovites, Maria Rozhneva and Lidia Kononenko. Both have now successfully completed the first study course at the Tekhnikum and are proceeding with the second course.

Working in Maria Rozhneva's brigade is the young spinner Vera Filina. Last year she completed her seven-year education with excellent marks, and she has now enrolled at the Tekhnikum. While Maria Rozhneva was absent on long leave, Vera Filina led the brigade. She and her two friends decided to operate the same number of spindles as had been operated by the brigade of four. Vera Filina has now been in charge of the brigade for several months, and the output level has not merely not fallen but has constantly risen.

The brigade of weavers in which Lidia Kononenko works is led by assistant-foreman G. P. Bitkov. He is rightly considered the best assistant-foreman in the factory. His working experience is studied by many team leaders. Comrade Bitkov's successes are no accident: they are based on a continuous development in his technical and political knowledge. This year Comrade Bitkov will complete his studies at the Tekhnikum, and he is now doing the practical work set as preliminary to the examination.

E. J. Makarova, shift-foreman in the dye-shop, may be called a gifted and resourceful expert at her job. She is taking the second course at the Correspondence Institute and excels in her studies.

The Stakanovite weavers Lidia Kuznetsova and Margarita Logacheva are in the forefront of the socialist emulation movement and at the same time are model students at the Young Workers' School. The former is in the fifth class and the latter in the seventh, and their work is always marked either "Good" or "Excellent."

No less significant are the facts concerning those who have already completed their studies at the Tekhnikum and have received an intermediate technical and secondary education. We already have thirty-two such people at our factory. After passing their technical examination they all took up responsible posts at their own factory.

These facts are an object-lesson on the value of study. They have greatly assisted in awakening among the workers a widespread desire to improve their educational standards and to complete their seven-year and intermediate-technical education.

The factory Party organisation has carefully examined the experience of organising studies, and has come to the conclusion that we can provide every worker with a seven-year education and every assistant foreman with an intermediate technical and secondary education. This conclusion has been embodied in the plan for education over three years. This plan comprises the following aspects: general and technical education; co-operation between the factory workers and the scientists; mechanising production and inculcating new techniques, inventiveness and rationalisation; and satisfying the cultural needs of the workers.

When we began drafting the plan we prepared exact data on the age-groupings and general educational level of the workers, and working from these data we distributed the students according to age among all the classes in the Young Workers' School, the Tekhnikum, the Institute, the tekhnimum courses, and so on. For former pupils of seven-year schools who had for various reasons had their education interrupted, study groups were arranged to prepare them to enter the appropriate classes.

The educational plan for the Kupavna factory workers is depicted in the table below (percentage figures).

TYPES OF EDUCATION

Years	Political Group	Improved Tekhnimum Courses	Young Workers' School	Textile Tekhnimum Branch	Textile Correspondence Institute Branch	TOTAL
1950/1951	12.5*	23.4	16.0	7.3	1.3	60.5
1951/1952	—	—	12.4	6.7	2.1	21.2
1952/1953	—	—	9.5	4.5	4.3	18.3
TOTAL	12.5	23.4	37.9	18.5	7.7	100.0

* In subsequent years political education is planned separately.

In its full form the plan gives the exact number of students per class and per course (including the courses of the improved tekhnimum).

We began to carry out the plan on September 1, 1950. It turned out that there was every possibility not only of fulfilling the plan but exceeding it. Thus, the Young Workers' School received twenty-five more applications than we had allowed for, the Tekhnikum thirteen more, and the Institute three more. This was because some of the workers had prepared themselves by independent study for entrance into the Tekhnikum and the Institute, and some of the over-thirties expressed a wish to study at the Young Workers' School. Of the total number of workers, 76 per cent are now studying.

All the groups began the scholastic year in a keen and organised way. Attendance at the Tekhnikum and the Institute approaches 100 per cent.

Attendance at the Young Workers' School is as yet 87 per cent, but this is due to various temporary causes. We have no doubt that attendance at this school will also reach 100 per cent.

Organising education without interrupting production has entailed a certain amount of reorganisation. We have had to change the shift rotas and to improve the placement of young workers in hostels, taking into account the composition of the study groups. The question of living and educational accommodation has become acute. But all these problems can be completely solved. We hope that with the aid of the Ministry we shall be able to meet the pressing demand for premises. We have already done a great deal in this field with our own forces.

An excellent social centre [*kombinat bytovogo obsluzhivaniya*] has been set up at the factory, and we intend to transfer the canteen to it. The old canteen premises will be used to extend the lecture-rooms and living accommodation.

We have assembled a good teaching staff, consisting of secondary school teachers, the factory's best engineers and Moscow Tekhnikum and Correspondence Institute lecturers.

The staff of the factory education department, headed by Elena Mikhailovna Utkina, is working harmoniously and enthusiastically. This department has become a kind of educational G.H.Q. On its initiative visual aids and posters were prepared by the factory, and the equipping of the technical cabinet was carried out with loving care.

Our branch of the Tekhnikum alone will assist in the course of the next three years to produce a hundred specialists of intermediate educational standard. The question may arise: will the factory be able to provide all of these with work suited to the qualifications they have obtained? Such doubts may be allayed at once: we already have more than 250 positions requiring to be filled by specialists with a secondary education. Technicians are training for work as assistant-foremen, training instructors, senior checkers, and so on.

Interesting work demanding a high level awaits students of the Tekhnikum who have successfully completed their studies.

As far as students of the Institute are concerned, many of them will, after getting their diplomas or degrees, continue in their present positions. This is understandable, inasmuch as students of the Institute are already in positions requiring engineering training. Among them are the head of the spinning equipment department, comrade S. V. Utkin; shift foremen comrades R. G. Fradkin and V. P. Korolev; the chief of the laboratory, Comrade S. B. Freidinova; and the head of the electrical department, comrade Vorobyev. For ordinary workers who graduate from the Institute there are already thirty vacancies, at present being filled by workers with practical experience.

All the other comrades who get a seven-year and a ten-year secondary education will also receive jobs to suit their inclinations. Moreover, our factory, like every other Soviet undertaking, is constantly developing and enriching itself with new technical devices, with the most complex machinery and precision instruments. Anyone who has been away from Kupavna even for only a year will find a great deal that is new.

All these technical devices raise the productivity of equipment and of labour, and lighten the work. But knowledge is needed to operate them, and workers who can make the fullest possible use of these devices are required. There is no doubt that in three years' time our factory will have enriched itself still further with the latest technical appliances, and the need for technically qualified workers will have grown enormously.

Organising education on a large scale without interrupting production

is not an easy task. But the results make up for all the efforts. It makes one happy to see an ordinary worker develop into a technician and an ordinary assistant-foreman into a specialist with university-level education.

In our country the highroad to knowledge lies open to the workers. Absorbing jobs await graduates of educational institutions. One of the greatest conquests of the October Revolution, the right to education, is inscribed in letters of gold in the Stalin Constitution. The Kupavna factory collective, lavishly making use of this right, are marking the great festival of the toilers with fresh victories in labour and in study.

From *Textilnaya Promyshlennost*, 1950, 11.
—Abridged

G L O S S A R Y

Tekhminimum : Course in minimum standard of technical knowledge; first step by unskilled workers towards the improvement of their qualifications and knowledge, which is organised in all Soviet factories.

Tekhnikum : Establishment giving intermediate technical and secondary education. (See below.)

Seven-year school : For children from seven to fourteen/fifteen, with the same programme as the first seven years of the ten-year school.

Ten-year school : For children from seven to seventeen/eighteen, up to university entrance level.

Intermediate technical and secondary education : Post seven-year school; four/five-year course comprising the three final years of the ten-year school and education in specialised fields (industry, transport, agriculture, medicine, pedagogy, etc.).

Institute : University-level higher educational establishment, which grants diplomas on graduation, and degrees (candidate) for post-graduate work.

Branch : All cultural and education institutions may set up branches anywhere for the convenience of those unable to attend at the main establishment.

Cabinet : In this context, premises equipped for study and research work.

Marks : Four categories—Poor; Satisfactory; Good; Excellent—the stress being laid on general understanding and capability as well as factual knowledge.

Engineer : Specialist with higher technical education, i.e. graduate from a university or an Institute.

NEW SOVIET LITERATURE, THEATRE AND CINEMA

By Ralph Parker

IF one reviews the field of Soviet literature and the arts as a whole in this winter season—the watershed of the twentieth century—there is one theme seen to be outstanding, a theme that links today with tomorrow: the effort of the Soviet people to found a communist society.

“How should we live, how should we work to advance the dawn of communism?” This is the question that the worker Sonya Solntseva asks herself in Surov’s new play *Dawn over Moscow* and that worries the financial adviser Zorin in another popular play now running in Moscow. And in that remarkable new film *Far from Moscow*, which Alexander Stolper has directed and Shelenkov and Chen Yu-Lan photographed, on the famous novel by Azhayev, the drama exists more in the reshaping of people’s mental attitude towards their work than in the terrific struggle with the forces of nature they have to wage to carry out their audacious plans.

“How are personal interests best combined with the interests of society? How are the ever-growing needs of the people to be more fully met? How can the discipline of the plan be fused with the vast surge of initiative from the masses? What is now required of management? To all such questions the heroes of new Soviet plays are answering with their deeds and thoughts.”

Thus did one critic recently write of current productions on the Moscow stage.

Similar preoccupations concern the principal characters in such widely read novels as Babayevsky’s *Light over the Earth*, part of the trilogy he has devoted to the theme of the development of character under the influence of the new environment created by the advent of electricity to the countryside, or *Kuznetsk Land*, by A. Voloshin, the story of Siberian coal miners mobilising their strength to combat the “imperturbable backwaters of conservatism” that exist in some sections of the management, or in Vera Panova’s *Bright Shore*, the novel she wrote on a theme suggested to her by one of the real people she used in her first novel *The Train*, the director of a group of cattle-breeding farms.

Sergei, the enthusiastic young hero of Babayevsky’s novel, is talking to his friend, Victor, an electrical engineer.

“Can’t you see the glow, the light that is rising over our land?” he asks.

“I can’t say that I do”, said Victor, with a melancholy smile.

“Why, we’re starting to refashion Nature—Nature herself, d’you understand? Do you realise what that means? It means that our life is taking on a sweeping new scope! Add to this our schemes of electrification and mechanisation, and there you have an entirely new Kuban!” Sergei put his arm round his friend and gazed earnestly into his eyes, then asked: “Tell me, Victor, don’t you believe that communism is already visible and tangible, here, right before our eyes?”

“I must confess I don’t see it or feel it.”

“How can you fail to see it?” Sergei asked with a broad sweep of his arms. “Just look at our Upper Kuban . . . a man must be blind not to see the life we have entered upon. . . .”

Or listen to Rogov, the mining engineer in *Kuznetsk Land*.

He shrugged his shoulders impatiently and repeated in a loud voice: "A grand and glorious life! Do you realise that, miners? And here you are beginning it haphazard, stumbling and faltering, because you don't realise how much each of you has in him"

Or, addressing his chief at a public meeting:

"I have no faith in what you said today, comrade chief of the mine. None whatever! You either do not or will not realise that the collective is being shackled by fetters whose name is routine"

Rogov's ideas are shared by some of the miners. One of them is speaking at a production conference:

"Our esteemed chief of the mine keeps harping on one thing: 'We've got traditions. We've always been in the van.' Maybe that's true, but I don't need to tell you we can't expect to go on living on past achievements for long."

And this is how another miner speaks:

"In my opinion happiness consists in being at one with the people, in fighting for the people. . . . And also in being able to see the glorious future through the everyday life of the present, to be able to carry the future in your heart, to feel it throbbing in your veins."

The critics have been quick to condemn a certain tendency towards bombast in the handling of this theme, and have welcomed the new note of restraint struck in the latest plays, where the hero is treated in greater depth.

A character in *Dawn over Moscow*, Kapitolina Solntseva, the woman director of an important Moscow textile mill, is an interesting example of this new approach. Her record in achievement appears to be unblemished. The mill's output is 140 per cent above plan. But Solntseva has sacrificed her personal life for her work and is neglecting the upbringing of her daughter. Moreover, she has got into a groove and is obsessed with the aim of producing more "yardage", overlooking the demand of the public for higher quality, brighter designs. This leads to sharp conflict between her and her family, her chiefs in the ministry and her seniors in the Party, and the rank-and-file workers under her. Until she realises her mistakes she remains blind to the movement going on around her, which one character describes as the struggle for a finer, more beautiful life.

The principal theme of *State Councillor* is somewhat different. Here the central character is the director of a building trust who has successfully built several large factories and electric power stations, and who has developed a manner of overriding criticism and in particular of ignoring the Party's demands that he should respect the plan. He favours "storming tactics", taking unjustifiable risks, and financial extravagance; the conflict in the play lies in the clash between his "anarchism" and the Party's insistence on discipline.

It might be thought that such themes could not be handled, whether on the screen, on the stage or in literature, without a superfluity of dull didactic matter. One has but to imagine the result of tackling such subjects in the expressionist manner of the German theatre in the 1920s! Soviet realism, however, sets its face against the impersonal manner so often adopted by writers of works on social themes. It is no less averse to the banalities of naturalism. In this, the style that is being worked out with so much discussion and experiment does really correspond to the desire of the public to see or read about characters with whom they are familiar in their workaday lives, but in settings where that new world they believe to be in process of emerging is delineated more clearly, and often more brightly, than it appears to them in "real life", still wrapped in the integument of the present. The playwright looking into the future is not depicting a "bright city" lying beyond high walls that still have to be torn down. "Our

tomorrow has already dawned", as a young weaver puts it in *Dawn over Moscow*. Alexander Fadeyev has called on Soviet writers to look into the future and reveal the features of tomorrow, depicting the individual both as he is and as he should be. Put into practice, these precepts lead neither to utopianism nor to a harsh didacticism, because there reigns in Soviet life so complete an assurance that the pace of advance from the present to the future is ever increasing, and because people are so confident that they know where they are going.

The success of the realistic manner is also contributed to by something that is often described here as the "moral unity of Soviet society", the existence of an immense field of principle, feeling, attitudes and values which the writer has in common with the whole of the society he serves. The factory director, the academician, the milkmaid, the demobilised hero of the Soviet Union, the Arctic-station doctor—central characters in recent plays and novels—are less remote from the ordinary run of people than they would be in any other society, and can be depicted not as members of separate castes but as average Soviet citizens, whose outlook on most things and whose behaviour in most circumstances can be readily understood by all. Thus a play about a factory manager or the director of a scientific research institute will not resolve itself into an examination or exposure of an entire category in Soviet society, but will consist of a portrait of an individual who owes his position to his merit alone, and who were he to lose it would fit in again at a more modest level without social unease.

In view of the altogether false conception of Soviet society as a structure of highly differentiated categories that is being circulated abroad, it is necessary to insist on the bond of fellowship that unites Soviet people of different generations, professions and positions in society. There is a memorable scene in the film *Far from Moscow* which seems to me to convey quite clearly the amount of warm human feeling engendered on those occasions when a collective meets to subject itself to searching frank public examination, known here as self- or auto-criticism. This is a major social institution, which has been authoritatively described as "exposing the deficiencies and errors in the work of particular persons, organisations and institutions, on the basis of a free, businesslike discussion by the workers of all the problems of economic political life . . . (and) developing the ability to see, to uncover, to acknowledge one's mistakes and to learn from them". The scene occurs during a gathering of engineers, planners and other experts engaged on a war-time project to lay a long stretch of pipeline in the Far East. Moscow, at that time under heavy pressure from the attacking Germans, has called for a shortening of the time originally estimated as necessary, and this means scrapping the old plans and adopting a more audacious one. Work has started on this, but some of the experts feel that a distinguished elderly engineer is withholding his talents and not contributing as much as he could to solving the tremendous problems that have arisen, as winter draws on and some means have to be found of laying the pipe under the frozen surface of the river.

It falls to a junior member of the designing room to voice this criticism of his chief in the latter's presence, and the scene, as filmed, most sensitively shows the lad's anguish as he leads the attack and the effort it costs him to place the public interest before his personal feelings of respect and affection for the engineer. As the shafts go home and the man who is their target bows his head and suffers, we are shown the faces of the others who are present at this painful scene. There is nothing accusatory in their expression, no signs of any elation at the old man's humiliation, rather of eager expectation that he, as a member of their family, will recognise the justice of the charge. Were he to remain unmoved or stubbornly to reject the criticism, they

would, one felt, have considered that the failure was theirs. And in this willingness to share the blame and to take the responsibility of putting wrong things right lies the essence of self-criticism, a process of correction that can only be effective if the collective strength is great.

The scene brings to mind many others in recent Soviet plays and films, in *Court of Honour*, *Moscow Character*, *The Great Force* and others, where folly or egoism or shortsightedness or some other human failing is corrected by groups whose criticism, however stern, is never lacking in an offer to help. It is this approach to the resolving of conflicts which, more than anything else, gives contemporary Soviet drama the "human touch", saving the play or film on social themes from didacticism.

Naturally, the theme of the struggle for the advance to communism is closely linked with that of the struggle for a lasting peace. The maintenance of peace is inherent in all those works dealing with the bright dawning morrow, for to the people of the Soviet Union peace is a positive concept—not the absence of war, but the undisturbed continuation of their plans to achieve the fuller, richer, finer life. But paens to the joys of peace rarely ring out without some sharp reminder, sometimes an undertone, sometimes an outspoken passage in condemnation of the war-mongers, that peace is gravely threatened. Sergei Prokofiev's new oratorio *On Guard for Peace*—the words are by Samuel Marshak, writer of children's verse and translator of Burns and Shakespeare—is an example. Scored for a chorus of male and female and boys' voices and for contralto and treble soloists, it deals with war-time destruction and ordeals in the Soviet Union as they appeared to a child, with the heroes of Stalingrad—who in the words of the oratorio "need no sword in their museum but whose greatest reward would be the gift of peace"—and with the life of the child growing up amid scenes of reconstruction, with "peace" the first word he learns to write in his school copy-book. Prokofiev, in his most felicitous manner, describes the doves of peace being released by children from casements all over the world, and the growth of friendly links between young people in many lands that has been one of the most hopeful developments since the war; and finally, after a lullaby of haunting beauty, a stern passage deals with Truman's attempt to ship arms to all corners of the earth and the angry answer he has been given by dockers and by children.

A glance at the prospectus for 1951 of the Soviet film industry shows how the condemnation of war plans and the theme of their own plans for peaceful construction run in harness. Twenty-six full-length feature films have been planned for completion in 1951, nineteen of them in the improved colour system in which such strides forward have been made here recently. There is to be a picture with a setting of the Baku oil fields, another entitled *The Battle for Coal*, a film version of Gulia's popular book about a Caucasian village *Spring in Saken*, Sergei Gerasimov's picture of the life of a village doctor, a screen version of Babayevsky's novel *The Knight of the Golden Star*, which deals with the work of a demobilised soldier in the Kuban countryside, biographical pictures about Belinsky, the nineteenth-century critic, Przhevalsky, the famous Russian explorer of Asia, Felix Dzerzhinsky the Bolshevik revolutionary, and the Ukrainian national poet Taras Shevchenko. Not one of the films scheduled deals with the theme of war, the Soviet film industry having completed the task laid upon it of chronicling the main battles of the late war with the triumphantly successful *Battle for Berlin*. On the other hand several pictures are listed that have the denunciation of war-mongering as their subject, and these include Dovzhenko's *Goodbye America*, Arnstam's *The War-mongers*, and Alexander Romm's *The World's Conscience*.

The absence of war scenes is also notable in the 1950 art exhibition at

the Tretiakov Gallery, where again the emphasis is laid on scenes of peaceful construction with generous reference to the international movement for peace, particularly in a dignified canvas depicting Paul Robeson singing at Peekskill behind a protective line of progressive American citizens, and in a deeply moving group of figures speeding the dove of peace on her way—the work of sculptor Vera Mukhina.

It would be misleading were the impression to be left that all artistic production at this period was dominated by the themes mentioned above. The observer who is on the look-out for work that provides clues to the present mood of Soviet Russia may easily err in overlooking the many books, plays, films, and so forth, on which contemporary events have a less direct bearing, and thus draw too narrow a picture of cultural activities. A film like *Brave People*, for example, one of the most popular presented recently, falls well outside the category of pictures with a moral, though few who saw this fast-moving adventure picture with its stampeding horses, its breakneck mountain riding, and exciting chases through the gorges of the Caucasus, could fail to have been stirred by its romantic optimism.

Nor need one strain to find social significance in the delightful new ballet *Ali-Batyr* recently presented at the Kirov Theatre in Leningrad, with Dudinskaya and Sergeyev dancing the main roles. *Ali-Batyr* is the story of a bird maiden who strays into a dark corner of the forest and has her wings stolen by an evil spirit who wants her for his court among the mushrooms and the rotting tree stumps. She is rescued by a Tartar youth—the legend is a Tartar one and the music is by a young Tartar composer who was killed in the war—and she consents to be his bride. During the wedding celebrations in the village the bride yearns to fly again and is tempted to reassume the wings that the evil spirit leaves within convenient reach. She takes wing and is forced by a flock of ravens to land in the depths of the forest. Once again the Tartar finds her, but this time they are trapped together within the flames of a forest fire, represented with commendable realism by the Leningrad producers. *Ali-Batyr* beseeches his bride to use her powers of flight to escape death, leaving him to perish alone. But she replies by flinging her wings into the fires. They are rescued, but not before the audience has been driven nearly frantic with excitement.

To Leningrad, too, the credit is due for the first production of Dmitri Kabalevsky's new opera *The Family of Taras*, the libretto being based on Boris Gorbatov's *The Unconquerable*, a novel of the occupation. As in most recent Soviet attempts to create new operas, the choruses are musically more distinguished than the solo parts, and Kabalevsky has enriched Russian operatic music with some splendid contrapuntal writing. There is also a fine dramatic scene when one of Taras's sons who has returned unexpectedly confesses that he had disgraced himself and the family honour by allowing himself to be captured alive by the enemy; and another constructed around the tragic feelings that arise in the minds of some young partisans who have to burn down their school house because it is being used by the Gestapo. It is in this scene that there is sung a chorus that rings most happily in the memory when heard in these days of peace, a song on the theme that after victory the young people will rebuild their school finer than it had been before. Today, at the end of the five-year period of post-war reconstruction, when all the thousands of schools destroyed have been rebuilt, but when the joy of parents at seeing the new generation attending them is clouded by the knowledge that another war is threatened, this song has its undertones of poignancy.

These feelings, however, are subjective. Soviet art today reflects no anxiety. Where the theme of the war danger is approached, it is in a

spirit of challenge. Not for one moment does any writer allow himself to express the slightest doubt that war is something that can be and will be avoided. This gives additional cogency to the presentation of the main theme of advance towards communism, a goal which, as many who ask whether the USSR is going might do well to note, is held attainable without the conquest of any land, without the extension of the Soviet frontiers or the conversion of any people to new ways—in short, at home, for the Soviet peoples themselves and by their own efforts.

Moscow, January 1951.

TOPICAL SOVIET COMEDIES

★ LATEST ACTING SCRIPTS AVAILABLE ★

SIGNAL GREEN. A. Surov. 1948. 8 men, 6 women.

THE MOSCOW CHARACTER. A. Sofronov. 1949.
8 men, 7 women.

THE HAWTHORN GROVE. A. Korneichuk. 1950.
9 men, 9 women.

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PROBLEMS OF PLANNING MATERIAL AND TECHNICAL SUPPLY IN THE NATIONAL ECONOMY OF THE USSR

By E. Lokshin

(continued from previous issue)

IN planning the *Distribution* side of the material balance sheets, it is essential to establish correctly the requirements for production and for construction. Planning expenditure for one's own needs differs methodologically in no way from the planning of the two preceding sections of the balance sheets.

The starting-point in planning the *Expenditure* side of the balance sheet must be an economical expenditure of materials, fuel and electric power, and the elimination of all unnecessary and excess stocks. Waste and irrationality in the use of means of production are alien to the socialist system of economy, by its very nature.

The attempt of some managers and supply workers to obtain superfluous materials and hoard them is a manifestation of parochial, petty-minded and fundamentally anti-social tendencies; in this attempt the vestiges of capitalism in men's consciousness find expression.

Workers of this type are becoming fewer and fewer in our economy. The overwhelming majority of workers in the economic and supply organisations are actively striving to lower the norms of expenditure and to eliminate superfluous stocks, tackle questions of supply in a statesmanlike manner, and realise the necessity of integrating the interests of individual undertakings with the broader State interest. However, the struggle for economy in circulating capital, and for the reduction of stocks, is not taking place everywhere with equal vigour. Thus, in 1950, some consumers sent in to the planning organisation orders for metal, equipment, motor vehicles, timber and other products, which exceeded their actual requirements by 20%—30%. The task therefore is that of thoroughly checking the correctness of and grounds for the supply orders, in an attempt to uncover the slightest appearance of greed and inflated orders.

The requirements put forward by undertakings, Chief Administrations, Ministries and Departments must be supported by appropriate technical and economic calculations based on the standards system [*sistema normativov*]. Material, fuel and equipment requirements must be determined on the basis of the production programme (or on the plan for capital construction) and the most up-to-date expenditure norms.

Critical examination of all orders must form a great part of the activities of all supply organisations. First and foremost there must be an attempt to see to it that the bulk of the material requirements are determined by direct calculation from output and norm. In determining the requirements of undertakings and branches of industry as regards materials, it is of great importance to take into account existing production stocks, that is stocks of material, fuel and equipment held by the consumer, and to determine the amount of the production reserves actually required.

If the quantity of superfluous stocks held by the suppliers is added to the supply resources, then the superfluous stocks held by the consumers must be deducted from their material requirements. In other words, all stocks with the consumers in excess of the norm must be regarded as internal supply resources, and the requirements of the various Ministries and Departments must consequently be reduced by the amount of these stocks.

Accordingly, in planning the material funds for 1950, the stocks of materials over and above the norm in the possession of the Ministries of Transport Engineering, Agricultural Engineering, Coal-mining, Communications, and other Ministries, were taken into account.

The method of determining consumers' or suppliers' stocks expected is: to the amounts given in the statement of stocks (or in the inventory), estimated arrivals of materials up to the beginning of the planned period must be added, and estimated expenditure of material over the same period subtracted.

Planning material funds in correlation with actual requirements is of vital importance. It secures above all the proper distribution of the State's resources, and consequently helps to establish correct proportions between the branches of economy in the process of reproduction.

At the same time the allocation to the consumer of materials in the amounts actually required encourages more stringent economy measures, technical progress, the discovery of supplementary resources, and a more thoughtful attitude among those engaged in production.

The material balance sheets also contain the sections *Imports* and *Exports*. The most important source on which to base the *Imports* and *Exports* sections in the material balance sheets are the trade agreements between the Soviet Union and the People's Democracies. Economic ties between the Soviet Union and the People's Democracies are growing, to the mutual benefit of both sides.

An important item in the material balance sheets is the establishment of the market allocation [*rynochny fond*], or fund allocated for individual consumption. In determining the size of the market allocation in the balance sheet, a positive correlation is established between production and individual consumption. Constant improvement in the workers' material and cultural living standards is a basic law of expanding socialist reproduction. In the material balance sheets, this finds expression in the increase in the market allocation, which ensures a corresponding increase in trade. Thus, the material balance sheets for 1950 allocate for individual consumption a substantially increased amount of metal articles, petroleum products, building materials and other products. The market allocations of industrial and food products have also been substantially increased.

A planned economy cannot develop without reserves. The expansion of the State reserves is therefore one of the basic tasks of organisations planning material supply. The material balance sheets must specify the State reserves required. The material balance sheets thus ensure the discovery of the maximum possible resources of the national economy, and determine the general lines of distribution of these resources.

At the same time as the material balance sheets, distribution plans are also worked out, which establish the amounts to go to individual Ministries and Departments. In the course of this work, and during the deliberations with the Ministries and Departments on the material funds, the actual requirements of the individual consumers become more precisely defined, as does accordingly the general allocation of resources

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IN working out the material balance sheets, and in particular in determining the actual requirements of the Ministries and Departments, one of the most important tasks is the establishment of the progressive norms of expenditure of material, fuel and electric power. The expenditure norms are the basis on which the whole supply plan rests; they are the necessary pre-conditions of genuine scientific planning.

The effort to economise material resources, to inculcate a new and improved technology, to reduce production losses to a minimum, and to raise the co-efficient of use of materials, fuel and electric power, finds general expression in the lowering of expenditure norms.

The technical and economic norms, expressing the productivity of the equipment and the amount of material and labour expended per unit of production, have a direct influence on the organisation of the process of production and stimulate the discovery and utilisation of production reserves.

Norms, being a component part of the State plans and among the most important indices in these plans, are of great importance in the planned guidance of economy.

In the decision of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on the 1947 State plan for the rehabilitation and development of the national economy, Stalin's remarks concerning norms were further defined. The Government stated that the technical and economic standards of utilisation of machinery, materials and fuel should be worked out on the basis of the most up-to-date norms, allowing for the achievements of the Stakhanovites and ensuring the over-fulfilment of the plan laid down.

Technical and economic norms should not be determined by the *average* results already achieved in productivity of equipment or expenditure of material and fuel. The norms adopted in the plan should be not general but *progressive* averages, influenced by the achievements of the Stakhanovites and related to the most up-to-date production experience. Only in this case will the norms really contribute to the struggle for the best utilisation of the means of production and stimulate a further increase in production.

Average progressive norms cannot in fact be obtained by mere calculation, but must be determined on the basis of a thorough and comprehensive technical and economic analysis of production. Serious daily study must be given to the experience of the leading collectives and of individual Stakhanovites, in order to discover the factors that have helped them to achieve positive results, to determine the prospects for the development of technique and the organisation of production, and to take into account the possibilities of improving the skill of engineers, technicians and ordinary workers. This is the basis for planning average progressive norms.

It must, however, be admitted that they are not yet correctly established everywhere. For instance, in 1949 a number of norms were abandoned because experience proved them too high. Some Ministries also put forward norms for 1950 which were found too high.

The effort to establish and carry out progressive norms is the chief method of raising the whole standard of production, of increasing the profitability of an undertaking and ensuring its financial stability.

The effort to economise in the use of the fixed and the circulating capital is one

of the most important conditions for increased socialist accumulation; consequently it is also one of the conditions for expanded socialist reproduction, for an increase in the strength and wealth of our country, for a steady rise in the material and cultural standard of living of the working people.

The movement—started on the initiative of the workers at the Kolomna and Sormovo plants—for economy in materials and fuel and for making use of these economies to produce goods in excess of the plan, is a notable demonstration of the interest taken by Soviet people in the most rational use of all the means of production.

The economic effect of the struggle to reduce expenditure norms is considerable. The material and fuel expended are one of the basic elements in the prime costs of industry. Economy in the utilisation of the means of production, expressed in a reduction in specific expenses per unit of production, is one of the basic factors in lowering prime costs and increasing accumulation, calculated in monetary terms.

But direct economy is not all. The lowering of material and fuel expenditure norms is tantamount to an increase in the volume of production, an increase, moreover, which does not involve additional expenses. This means that more can be produced from a given amount of raw material; consequently, a reduction in expenditure norms is one of the most important premises for an increase in the scale of production, with the existing material and fuel resources.

Economy in the producers' circulating capital, signifying economy in the expenditure of stored-up [*oveshchestvlennyi*] past labour, also leads to an increase in labour productivity. A reduction in the raw material and fuel expenditure norms also saves current labour, owing to a corresponding reduction in the amount of material processed, and consequently in labour expenditure on the transport, storage, etc., of these materials.

In addition, the effort to reduce norms demands the mastering of a new technique, the improving of the organisation of the technical process, and the curtailing of overhead expenses. It thus leads to an increase in labour productivity. Establishing the norms has thus a great and positive influence on every aspect of the productive and economic activity of the undertakings.

In recent years the establishing of norms for materials, fuel and electric power expenditure has undoubtedly improved. More norms have been worked out and set up, to cover a wider field of utilisation of the principal types of material. Where in working out the 1949 State supply plan 1,814 norms were established, in working out that for 1950 over 4,500 norms were established. The quality of the norms, their technical and economic base, has also been improved.

On the basis of a vigorous development of socialist emulation, of a rise in the technical level of production, and also of an improvement in the establishment of norms for material expended, the expenditure of material, fuel, and electric power has notably decreased in post-war years. It must nevertheless be admitted that in this field only the first step has been taken. Much remains to be done.

First and foremost it is necessary to extend the scope of the norms of expenditure on basic production [*fondiruemaya produktiya*]. For instance, the norms laid down in the State supply plan now cover 60% of the total consumption of rolled ferrous metals. In the next year or two it will be necessary to extend the scope of the norms to at least 75%-80%. The norms confirmed by the Ministries should cover an even greater proportion of the metal expended.

The methods by which norms are established must be still further improved. As yet, norms are not always sufficiently well based technically. They still conceal considerable reserves for a further reduction in wastage during the processing of materials and for an improvement in the use of materials.

This is shown by the fact that, in the production of certain kinds of the same product, the planned expenditure of basic materials and fuel, and the quantities actually expended, differ in different undertakings. In the fourth quarter of 1949, for instance, the average expenditure of fuel per kilowatt-hour of electric power in the power plants of the Ministry of Power stations was higher than that in the Mosenergo network (Moscow) or that in the Kemerovenergo network (Western Siberia). The amounts of fuel expended per ton of serviceable rolled metal differ in similar metallurgical works.

Such facts bear witness not only to the existence of considerable reserves for a further reduction in expenditure, but also to shortcomings in the actual establishing of norms of material expenditure. Ministries and planning organs must perfect the actual methods of establishing norms and to the greatest possible extent take into account, in establishing them, every possibility of further reducing wastage during the production process.

Hitherto expenditure norms have been based as a rule on existing designs of machines and other products. In establishing metal expenditure norms in machine-building, for instance, the calculations were based on the existing weight of the product, and the task of establishing the norms was reduced to determining the minimum of technically unavoidable wastage. We must go a stage higher in establishing norms of metal expenditure, and exercise a more critical faculty in establishing the necessary weight of the product. This means that it is necessary to reconsider the designs of

machines and to discover therefrom the possibilities for making economies. The possibilities of introducing various kinds of substitutes, and of exploiting local materials, must also receive thorough study.

Engineers, technicians, inventors and Stakhanovites should be drawn into the work of establishing norms for material and fuel expenditure. Considerably greater attention than hitherto should be given to the establishment of average progressive expenditure norms in Ministries, Chief Administrations and undertakings.

As has been pointed out above, in planning the funds allocated to a Ministry it is important to take into account also the stocks of basic materials with the suppliers and consumers.

This lends considerable importance to the establishment of norms for commodity and production reserves. The cost of the materials and fuel carried as production reserves, and also that of the finished product, constitute, of course, the basic part of the circulating capital of an undertaking. Decreasing norms of raw material and fuel expenditure, reducing the production cycle, decreasing production reserves and stocks of finished goods to the minimum actually required, lead to a speeding-up in the turnover of circulating capital and to the releasing of considerable amounts of the undertaking's resources and to a financially healthier condition.

The need for some trade and production reserves is determined by the conditions of production. Marx wrote: "In order that the process (of production) may flow along smoothly—apart from whether this reserve may be renewed daily or only at fixed intervals—there must always be more raw material, etc., accumulated at the place of production than is used up, say, daily or weekly" (*Capital*, vol. II, ch. VI, section II, § 1).

The socialist economic system presents great advantages as regards establishment of norms of reserves. In capitalist society, no individual capitalist, owing to the instability of the capitalist market and the antagonistic contradictions between production and consumption, is capable of rationally solving the problem of trade and production reserves. Marx has pointed out that stoppages in circulation, leading to a glut of reserves, are characteristic of capitalism. A further characteristic of capitalism is the great number of middlemen retarding the process of trade.

Only in a socialist society, where the material balance sheets and the distribution plans establish a direct connection between production and consumption, where not even the possibility of economic crises exists, has a rational solution of the problem of reserves been achieved.

In determining norms for production reserves, it is necessary to take into account the fact that undertakings must have two forms of production reserves: the current reserve, which fixes the amount of reserves held between two deliveries, and the emergency (guarantee) reserve. The consumer's reserves are to be found not only in the undertakings themselves but also in the storehouses and bases of the Chief Administration of Supply.

It must be noted that the method of establishing norms of trade and production reserves has been quite inadequately tackled, and the standards for these reserves have been determined quite empirically.

A decisive improvement must be made in the establishing of norms for reserves. For this it is necessary to start from a factual analysis of the factors determining the necessary volume of reserves. With regard to production reserves, such factors are the range of raw materials used, the distance of the consumer factories from the source of materials received, the regularity and frequency of the delivery of materials, the volume of individual deliveries, and the time required to prepare the materials for use in production.

An analysis of these factors will help to disclose ways of reducing norms for reserves—shortening the distance between the supplier factories and the consumer factories; expediting the movement of freight; more frequent deliveries; organising speedy acceptance and preliminary processing of the materials. The big advances in the distribution of industry, the successes of socialist transport, the great development of the through-traffic delivery system—all this has to a large extent created the pre-conditions for a reduction in norms for production reserves.

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THE drawing-up of a plan is only the beginning of planning; real planned direction develops only after the plan has been drawn up, while it is being carried out. Progress in the carrying out of the supply plan must be checked daily. This plan, and the production plan, must be carried out evenly and with an exact observance of the stipulated range of deliveries. Carrying out the supply plan of the national economy means carrying out the delivery plan not merely in general but also individually, as regards each separate consumer, as regards the dates and the regularity of deliveries, and as regards types, sorts and grades of products.

At the same time in some Chief Administrations of Supply, and particularly in the Chief Administration of Supply for metal, timber and petroleum, deliveries of products to consumers are still uneven, the plans dealing with particular sorts and types of metal,

timber and petroleum products are not being carried out, and the despatch of goods is unevenly spread over the quarter.

The most important pre-condition for the carrying out of the *supply* plan as regards range of products is the carrying out of the *production* plan in strict accordance with the categories set out in the plan. A situation, for instance, in which some machine-buildings plants, although quantitatively carrying out the production plan as a whole, do not do so as regards more complex and specialised machine tools, should not be allowed to occur.

The Ministries and Departments, and the overall planning organisations, must also keep a watchful eye on the observance of expenditure norms for materials, fuel and electric power. The leading undertakings and collectives in our country have, on the basis of a vigorous development of socialist emulation, been introducing considerable adjustments in the norms laid down.

A daily check on the level of production reserves should also be made. Industry is facing great tasks as regards the mobilisation of internal resources and the elimination of reserves in excess of the norm.

A persistent effort to economise in expenditure of materials, fuel and electric power, to curtail reserves in excess of those planned, to improve methodology in planning supply and in establishing the norms for the expenditure of materials, will lift the whole question of material and technical supplies in our national economy to a new and higher level.

—From *Planovoe Khozyaistvo, 1950, 2.*
Abridged translation.

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BOOK REVIEWS

LIFE MORE ABUNDANTLY

JACOB wrestling with his angel wasn't in it. I was Jacob, of course. Either literature was a serious matter, or it wasn't. Either music was a serious matter, or it wasn't. Either they were commodities—or what? As commodities they were produced for whom? For a select few, or for a whole people? If for a whole people, was not their production just as important as the production of any other commodity whatever? If production lagged behind, or if shoddy work was turned out, then did not the specialists involved lay themselves open for a rap just as would those whose job it was to produce tractors, or sheet metal, or food, if and when *they* fell down? What was literature if not food, of the mind, of the spirit? If music be the food of love, play on. . . . But what kind of love should move the composers of music? Love meaning self-love? Love of their own lofty ability to arrange certain sounds in certain patterns? And the more brilliant the pattern, though it were incomprehensible to the people and not based on any aspect of their lives, the more the applause from the critics, also a small select body? Surely not in the Sovietland.

What I wanted to do was to copy out extract after extract of what Zhdanov* had to say on this, and let the extracts speak for themselves. To step into his shoes myself, as it were; to let the four speeches speak for themselves and, for the most part, for me also. Why bother to "review" them! I wrestled, but got no nearer to it. "A pretty engineer of the human soul I am, Comrade Stalin", I said silently, as to someone not far away, and I was not joking. So, in despair, I took *On Literature, Music and Philosophy* to where my wife sat sewing in another room, and asked her to let me read some of it to her.

I read *Report on the Journals ZVEZDA and LENINGRAD*, 1947 straight through. My wife listened in silence as Zhdanov's fierce invective and polemic rose and fell. He took up Zoshchenko and Akhmatova, then brushed them aside and, at any rate the former, into the dustbin; he dusted down the Leningrad Party and the leaders of the Union of Soviet Writers, in proper style, for allowing personal friendships to outweigh socialist principles; and then, gently and lovingly, he asked them to do better. And all the time it was not simply

someone called A. A. Zhdanov speaking, but the Central Committee of the CPSU(B); and not only the Central Committee, but the people themselves, who had increasingly felt, and partially expressed, the criticism that Zhdanov here brought right into the open, publicly and devastatingly.

When I had finished, my wife said, impulsively and without any thought of a utopian meaning: "They want heaven on earth, don't they?" I said: "Yes, I think they do. That's what it is all about." She went on: "It's like all the great reforming movements rolled into one." I waited for more. "He's not without humour", she said, "but he has to watch over the child in the street. I'm interested in his accent on cheerfulness. He's very English, really." "Like the boy scouts?" I said. "But English intellectuals don't like boy scouts." "No", said my wife. "It's too uncomfortable for the intellectuals, is cheerfulness. But it's not like our boy scouts, because Zhdanov says that without politics the Soviet state cannot live, and our young people are not taught politics." "Or only the politics of gooks and supermen, now", I interjected. "Read me some more", said my wife. But for a moment I didn't comply.

I WAS thinking of "mother", Pelagea Nilovna.* She would have agreed with Zhdanov. What was literature to her, for her? Literature to her had been an illegal leaflet which she, with her son Pavel and his companions, distributed by stealth to the workers and peasants; literature was the illegal socialist book her son read, and hid when he'd read, but which she couldn't read but came to understand. Literature for Pelagea Nilovna was something to change people's faces, as it had changed her face, and not only their faces but then the whole face of the earth. And it had done so. It had changed the face of one-sixth of the earth's surface anyway, and now it was changing China's face, and all Asia's.

But literature of another kind, the "literature" of decay, of the *literati* who, as Gorky had said, "could see no farther than the soot on the kitchen range": what was it for? What was it for, if not to arrest that great process of human aspiration and change? So London produced its animal farms, and called the beaten cries

*ON LITERATURE, MUSIC AND PHILOSOPHY. By A. A. Zhdanov. Lawrence and Wishart, 1s. 6d.)

*MOTHER. By Maxim Gorky. (Foreign Languages Publishing House, Moscow, 7s. 6d.)

of sick, sick minds "literature", and even in Leningrad, tired, heroic Leningrad, a monkey popped up to call people back to the Zoo, to that jungle where the monkey said they belonged, and which anyway was a happier place. Was it? *Was it?* Perhaps I, and my wife too, could tell that "monkey" author something of the "happiness" of the capitalist jungle, the "zoo", where blood-mad tigers may not only rend us at any moment but break the bars and go hunting over the world. If we must have an animal terminology, then let us give their correct stripes to some of our "defenders of western Christian civilisation": they would include some high dignitaries of the Christian church, whose speeches, when they refused to condemn mass murder by atom bombs, would not admit of our placing them in any other category.



"WHAT can the bourgeois author write about, what source of inspiration can there be for him, when the world from one day to the next may be plunged once more into the abyss of a new imperialist war?"

"Good heavens!" muttered my wife. "Was that really said in 1934? Well, there it was. From Zhdanov's speech at the first All-Union Congress of Soviet Writers; and the date was 1934. Today, at the end of 1950, the American magazine *Newsweek* tells us, as "the reluctant but firm conclusion of authoritative circles in Washington", that this is the last Christmas of "peace on earth" we shall know. Perhaps we only dreamt all that happened since 1934, including seven million Soviet war dead, and are now waking up to that "new imperialist war" . . . America proposes—but it may be that the peoples, including a greater number of writers who are *not* bourgeois lackeys than existed in 1934, will dispose otherwise.



LET me now come to the point I have been trying to make, which is that these four speeches *are speeches*, framed in masterly fashion as such, and have their greatest impact if read aloud, in family circles or among study groups. Every sentence, every word, is subject for discussion—and sometimes, as in the *Concluding Speech at a Conference of Soviet Music Workers*, for further elucidation.

I am all for the principles of the classical heritage in music, based as it is on folk music, programme music, people's opera, and so forth, and away from any purely "formalist" trends. I agree that "innovation" does not by any means always imply progress; yet it seems to me—in respect of Zhdanov's remarks on modernistic paintings—that Picasso, for example, has often said *in paint* what Zhdanov is here saying *in words*.

The purpose of all art is to enlarge and enrich life, not merely to express or criticise it; but is it not then sound art to

reveal "the ever newer and higher possibilities awaiting development in the mind of man" [T. A. Jackson] by the inverse method?

The answer must be that it depends on the circumstances of the artists, writers, composers, poets. Here Zhdanov, in his speech to the 1934 Writers' Congress, is utterly clear. "Our literature is the youngest of all the literatures of all countries and peoples. At the same time it has the greatest idea-content and is the most advanced and revolutionary." The greatest idea-content: there is a mantleful of north wind for our own western "Acmeists", the purveyors of "Language Alone" as being the poet's whole business!

Again: "There is not and has never been a literature (other than Soviet literature) making its basic subject-matter the life of the working-class and the peasantry and their struggle for socialism. There does not exist in any country in the world a literature to defend and protect the equality of rights of the working people and the equality of rights of women." Always his accent is on the forward movement of the peoples, on "youth" in that forward ocean-wave sense, and on the position Soviet art and literature, music and thought, should and must occupy in the leadership of that movement.

And as with Zhdanov, so with Gorky. Gorky begins where the bourgeois writers of today end, and cannot but end. That is, with age and death and darkness. "Mother", when her story opens, is preternaturally aged at forty, cowed by the beatings of her husband, the mechanic who simply took out his frustration on her. She walked in darkness, weeping. But when her husband died, slowly, slowly a whole new perspective of life was opened to her. Without one false note anywhere, Maxim Gorky shows us how she becomes as young as the youngest comrade in her eagerness to help her son and his companions to spread this new perspective of *life more abundantly*. From a purely personal love of Pavel, she comes to understand how his work must go on, and would go on, even if he was exiled or died of torture. Finally she overcomes her own fear. A spy has recognised her and whispered to the gendarmes on the railway station. Her suitcase is full of the revolutionary leaflets. She knows she is caught, but for a moment her fear makes her try to delude herself. Again her inner voice says remorselessly: Caught. She jumps up then, opens the suitcase, and scatters the leaflets among the crowd, calling on them to unite against their oppressors. She is struck down, but nothing will silence her: her voice, throttled by the gendarmes, is taken up by the crowd, beginning their journey into a new life.

O grave, where is thy victory? Pelagea Nilovna lives in the Soviet Union of today, which is her child, as it is the child of all who fought for it.

THE translation of *On Literature, Music and Philosophy*, made and edited by several hands at the SCR, seems to me excellent in every particular; that of *Mother* is, however, not at all in the same category. Translators should really make up their minds whether to use standard English, or some dialect of English, when translating working-class or peasant Russian; and if so, what dialect or dialects. "Ses I to him, ses I" seems hardly sufficient to give the flavour of a pre-Revolution Russian coachman, or a post-Revolution taxi-driver. Also, when slang is used, translators might decide whether to use English or American slang, and not jump from one to the other. And when much of the dialogue is otherwise rendered in "correct" English, it is somehow disconcerting to hear a Russian lad address his mother as "mom"!

EWART MILNE.

ZHDANOV ON MUSIC

THE current number (Winter 1950-51) of the *VOKS Bulletin* prints a brief note by D. Shostakovich on his new oratorio *Song of the Forests*; the note contains the following passage: "All sections of the population participate in discussions of the creative and aesthetic problems of Soviet art, among them those of music. It is natural, therefore, that the decision of the Central Committee of the CPSU on music, which alerted composers to join the fight for realism, should have been received by us as the people's command . . ."

This passage serves to re-emphasise a truth long known to all but the wilfully blind: the decision of the Central Committee was the crystallisation of the demands of the vast number of Soviet music lovers, and the direct outcome of the dis-content of Soviet concert audiences.

It could not have been otherwise. A nation that is afforded the facilities for studying, hearing and criticising music on the unprecedented scale existing in the Soviet Union will find a way to remind its greatest as well as its lesser composers of their duty towards the society they live in and serve. It was stated at a plenary meeting of the central committee of the Soviet Art Workers' Union, held in June last year, that there were in 1949 no less than 329 concert organisations and groups of various kinds in the country. Their concerts were attended by audiences totalling 63,000,000. In addition to this, trade union amateur groups gave 100,000 concerts to audiences totalling 70,000,000. To ignore the consensus of opinion of these millions—as the dominating group in the Union of Soviet Composers and in the Committee for Art Affairs had attempted to do—would indeed have been dictatorship in art.

Zhdanov's insistence in his speech, which preceded the decision of the Central Committee by a few weeks, on the importance of the people's assessment of a musical

composition, forms the foundation upon which is built his profound and lucid analysis and devastating criticism of "formalist" music. It is precisely this *listening to the audience* that seems to raise the blood-pressure of some of our "experts" on Soviet cultural affairs. Thus, Alexander Werth is even goaded into blurting out at one fell swoop his whole attitude to art in general and the present subject in particular: "Another question to which Zhdanov gave no thought is that of musical culture. His criterion of a work (a very unfair criterion) is the People like this or the People don't like this." [Musical Uproar in Moscow, p. 31.]

Zhdanov stated that "in the years of Soviet power the people's musical culture has developed to an extraordinary degree. The artistic tastes of our previously merely musical people have become greatly enriched, thanks to a wide dissemination of classical music". [On Literature, etc., p. 69.] It is this high degree of musical culture among the Soviet people that suggests itself as the real reason why composers in the Soviet Union at any rate can no longer pass off as fruits of creative genius their private castles in the air (or nightmares).

For what is it in music that is proof of genius? It is not something that can only be grasped by a small group of aesthetes: a musical work is proved to be a work of genius by the scope of its content and depth, by its skill, and by the number of people who appreciate it, by the number of people it is able to inspire. Not all that is readily grasped is a work of genius, but all that is real genius is readily grasped, and the greater the genius the more intelligible it is to the broad masses of the people." [Ibid, p. 68.]

HAROLD C. FELDT.

ZHDANOV ON PHILOSOPHY

ANDREI ZHDANOV'S speech on philosophy, delivered at a conference of Soviet philosophers specially devoted to discussing the text-book of George Alexandrov, is a major contribution to Marxism and a valuable guide particularly to dialectics.

Zhdanov first shows what is required in order to write a proper history of philosophy. He enumerates a number of fundamentals:

1. That the history of philosophy is the history of the struggle of materialism against idealism.
2. That philosophy undergoes constant change corresponding to given changes in given historical periods in society.
3. That the history of philosophy cannot limit itself to the history of western philosophy alone, but must deal also with the history of philosophy in the East and in Russia.
4. That the class struggle is acutely reflected in the history of philosophy.

and that philosophical schools of thought in struggling against one another reflect the contradictions and struggles in class society.

5. That Marxism is not a mere gradual transition from preceding progressive teachings, but is a complete qualitative change, a break with past philosophy.
6. Finally, that "Marxist philosophy, as distinguished from preceding philosophical systems, is not a science above other sciences; rather, it is an instrument of scientific investigation, a method, penetrating all natural and social sciences, enriching itself with their attainments in the course of their development. In this sense Marxist philosophy is the most complete and decisive negation of all preceding philosophy". [On Literature, etc., p. 84.]

This is an important point, as it corrects an erroneous assumption by Plekhanov, who asserted that "Marxism is a complete theoretical system", thus reducing it to a closed dogma rather than "an instrument of scientific investigation".

Zhdanov examines carefully the question of partisanship, or militancy, in philosophy, and why it is important for Marxists not to compromise with any of the bourgeois philosophies. In a very profound passage he shows the relation of philosophy—the superstructure—to the base, and how each philosophical system has to be related to its actual historical environment. [ibid, pp. 91-96.]

One of the most important sections in the speech is the one elaborating the communist principle of criticism and self-criticism, which Zhdanov here raises to a brilliant Marxist philosophical generalisation.

In Soviet society, where exploitation of man by man has been abolished, the struggle of opposites, of contradictions, takes on the form of criticism and self-criticism, and thereby helps to overcome the contradictions in socialist society, the struggle between the old and the new.

It is difficult to show in a few hundred words the rich ideas contained in Zhdanov's speech on philosophy. Like Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin before him, he uses the critical method on a particular work to make vital positive additions to Marxism. Like Marx's criticism of Proudhon, Engels's of Duehring, Lenin's of Bogdanov, and Stalin's of Trotsky and Bukharin, all of them foundations of Marxism-Leninism, Zhdanov's work is one of great significance to dialectical materialism.

Only in the Soviet Union could there take place such a philosophical conference, where one of the leaders of the State comes and takes an active part in the discussion to advance and develop Soviet philosophy, just as Stalin recently spared no time or trouble in order to make a most important contribution to the theory of linguistics.

Philosophy in the Soviet Union is no mere scholastic concern of a few dons, but is a vital concern to literally millions of educated Soviet citizens.

CHIMEN ABRAMSKY.

AN ACADEMIC WORK ON CHEKHOV

MR. HINGLEY'S biographical and critical study* is a well-turned-out academic work of a pattern that is all too familiar. It contains an analysis of some of Chekhov's more famous stories and plays, as well as Chekhov's own views on several matters of literary interest, and is provided with a bibliography, an appendix to Chekhov's stories in English translation, an index of references and a general index. It also gives a fairly accurate account of the life of the great Russian writer, one of the most enigmatic figures in modern Russian literature, without, however, affording a real idea of the man himself, of the times in which he lived, or of his contemporaries. Moreover, its author contributes very little original criticism, contenting himself with discussing the points of view of other critics and doing his best to strike a fair balance between them.

This academic "pouring from one empty vessel into another", to quote a Russian proverb, seems to the present reviewer at any rate rather profitless. It is the sort of thing Professor Serebryakov spent all his life doing. Mr. Hingley rather uncharitably describes Professor Serebryakov as a "charlatan". That, surely, the redoubtable "Herr Professor" never was. Uncle Vanya himself called him "a learned fish" and "a soap-bubble", and it is significant that when the play was produced in Moscow for the first time, several professors of Moscow University were greatly offended by Chekhov's exposure of their own line of business.

The failure of the author of this study to advance any original idea of his own is perhaps best seen in his survey of Chekhov's plays. His general argument is, in the main, a rehash of the ideas which first emerged when the Moscow Art Theatre began to put on the plays, and which infuriated Chekhov every time he heard them expounded by Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko. These angry outbursts, so uncharacteristic of Chekhov, ought surely to be taken into account by critics of his plays.

Here and there Mr. Hingley also commits himself to rather curious statements. For instance, he seems for some reason to find the usual Russian title for the Minister of Education "sinister", but this is only because he translates it literally as "Minister of Popular Enlightenment".

*CHEKHOV: A Biographical and Critical Study. By Ronald Hingley. (George Allen and Unwin, 21s.)

And is it really necessary to be so mawkish when discussing Chekhov's "interest in the opposite sex" and especially his relations with the talented actress who later became his wife? Chekhov's relations with Olga Knipper are important because they shed a light on his personality as well as because they provide some valuable clues to his writings. So are his relations with the other women in his life, and perhaps most of all with Lydia Avilova, whom Mr. Hingley does not mention at all. Chekhov himself was far from mawkish, as several striking passages in his correspondence (not quoted in the work under review) prove. And there is no reason why his biographers and critics should be.

DAVID MAGARSHACK

CHINA AND THE SOVIET UNION

THIS book* sets out, in the author's own words, to make an analysis of Soviet interests in the Far East. The first third of the book is taken up with the history of relations between China and Tsarist Russia, the view being expressed that "to study Sino-Soviet relations with a clear understanding, it is advisable, at the outset, to trace the early direct diplomatic relations between China and Russia". This section begins with the arrival of the first Russians in China in 1618 (nineteen years before the first British ships reached Canton), though its story stretches back to include the Mongol invasion of Russia and Eastern Europe in the thirteenth century. The Russian Tsars from Peter the Great onwards regarded the region to the north of the Chinese Empire as a legitimate field of colonial expansion; from time to time, when not preoccupied with European wars, the Tsarist government would turn its attention to the Chinese Empire itself, which seemed to them, as later to many of the statesmen of the Powers during the nineteenth century, ripe for their "protection".

Nevertheless, it was only after the Industrial Revolution in Europe that Russia appeared as an imperialist power, alongside the western powers in the plundering of China. The Tsarist government pursued the familiar course of annexations, concessions and loans, followed by the building of railways in her particular sphere of interest, the north-eastern provinces known to the west as Manchuria. The chapters on the early history of the Chinese Eastern Railway, connecting the Trans-Siberian with Vladivostok by direct route through Chinese territory, show the typical pattern of railway imperialism as a means of economic exploitation.

Dealing with the re-establishment of Sino-Russian relations after the Russian revolution, Dr. Wu shows how for the first

time China's dealings with a foreign power were conducted on a level of equality. What does not clearly emerge, however, is the complete and decisive difference in the motives of Soviet and Tsarist foreign policy. Because he tends to write from the standpoint of whatever Chinese government was in power at the time of which he is writing, whether the centralised feudal bureaucracy of the Manchu empire in their relations with Tsarist Russia, or the militarist oligarchy of Peking in the 1920s and, later, the Kuomintang regime of Chiang Kai-Shek with which the Soviet Union had contact, Dr. Wu obscures the broader political issues which formed the basis of diplomacy on both sides. Sino-Soviet relations particularly must be studied against the background of events and forces in China; that the reader should be expected to have some knowledge of this is reasonable, but although in the book the panorama of world developments is kept in some perspective the internal struggle in China is entirely obliterated.

Dr. Wu's book can be of value to the reader who is aware of the march of events in China since the first revolution forty years ago. The Kuomintang purge of 1927, when Chiang Kai-Shek, having won supreme power in the country, reversed the policy of Sun Yat-Sen and tried to eliminate the Communists; the subsequent break in Sino-Soviet relations, of which Madame Sun Yat-Sen wrote to Chiang that "should this proposal of yours [to sever relations with the Soviet Union] be put into practice it would not only mean national suicide but would isolate the [Kuomintang] party and the country from all possible sources of help", and the Soviet assistance to China after the Japanese invasion in 1937 are all discussed with a good deal of documentation. On the last point it is interesting to quote Dr. Wu's judgment that "The Soviets actually came to China's rescue, rendering far more aid than Britain and America together. Before the Pearl Harbour incident Britain (sic) and American aid to China in the form of ammunition was very limited, while that accorded to Japan at the same time was considerable".

Writing of the events after the war, Dr. Wu deals at length with the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945, which he finds difficulty in understanding as, in his view, the Soviet Union had no need to make conditions relating to the war against Japan since that war was by then almost over. Moreover, it is asserted that "the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance [of 1945] is practically the only treaty of a detrimental character known to have been concluded by the Nationalist Government". Dr. Wu does not mention the treaty concluded with the USA by the Kuomintang government in 1946, which was in the direct tradition of the unequal

*CHINA AND THE SOVIET UNION.
By Aitchen K. Wu. (Methuen, 25s.)

treaties and permitted the exploitation of the Chinese people to an unprecedented extent. By the Treaty of 1945, on the other hand, the Soviet Union safeguarded herself against renewed aggression by Japan through North East China, the danger of which was by no means extinguished, and thereby acted also in the interests of the Chinese people. Soviet troops evacuated North East China in May 1946, after postponing the withdrawal date three times at the request of the Chinese Government to enable the Kuomintang forces to move in strength.

The analysis of the new Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship, Alliance and Mutual Assistance, concluded in February 1950, recognises that it is based on the need for Sino-Soviet co-operation in Asia, but does not give any clear idea of the new relations which exist between the Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China. On the actual text of the treaty little is said, although in trying to appraise its significance to the world, as Dr. Wu has done by stepping outside history and venturing into prediction, one should start from what it says. To talk of "secret agreements" and "hard bargaining", apart from being a mere repetition of the phrases used by the Kuomintang diehards in Taiwan and others who wish to disrupt Chinese-Soviet friendship, is to fail to see the importance of the treaty as between two great nations on an equal footing and moving towards the same goal; who share a common interest in the maintenance of world peace for the development of their own prosperity.

The author has done a useful job in making this material available in a convenient form. The facts are here; but there has been little careful evaluation of sources, and the views represented in the analysis of events are coloured by preconceptions arising out of the author's own standpoint and his part in the history. An extensive selection of documents is given throughout, both in the text of the book and in a 75-page appendix, ending with the treaty of 1950. There is a long bibliography, which does not, unfortunately, include recent works published in China. The arrangement of the book is somewhat confusing at times, the same event being mentioned in more than one place without adequate cross-reference; the dating is not always easy to follow. One or two passages are not quite clearly expressed, and there are some unfortunate misprints in proper names.

M.H.

UKRAINIAN GRAMMAR

THE purpose of this book* is "to provide American, Canadian and English students

*A MODERN UKRAINIAN GRAMMAR.
By G. Luckij and J. Rudnyckij. (University of Minnesota Press and Geoffrey Cumberlege, 20s. 1949.)

with a practical introduction to the Ukrainian language". The joint authors are competent teachers; their explanation of the pronunciation is adequate, and the thirty-nine lessons are graded in progressive order of difficulty. Each lesson introduces new grammatical rules and gives new vocabulary for the Ukrainian texts and exercises; the latter are both Ukrainian-into-English and English-into-Ukrainian, and will eventually be useful as conversation practice. Thirty-eight of the book's 184 pages are reserved for a Ukrainian-English dictionary.

At the end of the book there is a map of the "Area of the Ukrainian Language", in the USSR, but any mention of the term USSR has been most carefully expurgated from the text. The Ukrainian texts have been carefully selected from earlier authors, and a naïve reader might think that dead silence prevailed in the Ukrainian SSR, which for the first time in history has united all the Ukrainian lands, and that writers like M. Rylsky and P. Tychina were non-existent. This is perhaps natural for the authors, of whom one lives in Saskatchewan and the other teaches at the "Free Ukrainian University in Munich" (sic). Apart from this obvious aberration, students who are only linguistically minded may find the book useful.

V.M.

RUSSIAN RELIGIOUS LITERATURE

IT is but natural that the existence of a considerable Russian Orthodox Church in emigration should lead to an increasing Russian Orthodox literature in the West. Since the origin of the emigration lies in a hostility to the Soviet Union, it is equally natural that the tendencies of this literature should be anti-Soviet.

Mr. Fedotov has set out to compile an anthology* of Russian ascetical literature, a task which at first sight gives little scope for the tendency we have just noted. Nevertheless, the preface finds time to state that "Russia remains a great enigma to the West", and to refer to "her political and social tragedy", irrelevant as all this might appear to the theme of the book.

The book itself contains an interesting collection of extracts from Russian religious writers, beginning with the eleventh century Theodosius and finishing in the twentieth century with John of Kronstadt and that Fr. Yelchaninov who, having taken flight and abandoned the progressive movement after the events of 1905, died in emigration in Paris in 1934.

It is a common and indeed almost universal practice of reviewers of anthologies to quarrel with the choice of extracts made by the compiler, a method which opens possibilities for demonstrating the erudi-

*A TREASURY OF RUSSIAN SPIRITUALITY. Ed.: G. P. Fedotov. (Sheed and Ward, 25s.)

tion of the reviewer. In this case that indulgence can be forbore for the major part of the book—other writers could, no doubt, have been selected, but this group is probably as interesting as any other. For the modern period, however, it cannot be held that either John of Kronstadt with his “innocent weakness for rich silken cassocks given him by his admirers, . . . and his breast covered with cordon, stars and crosses”, or Yelchaninov with his “desire for death” and his bitter hatred of the progressive movement in the Orthodox Church, represent anything other than the more decadent side of Orthodoxy. Gregory Petrov with his publicly expressed desire that the Church should stand with the people against the corruption of the ruling class is, after all, rather more in the tradition of that St. Sergius, who worked with Dmitri, Grand Prince of Moscow, for the liberation of the Russian lands and who demanded of his own immediate followers that they should not acquire property but “have everything in common”. It is indeed this idea, extended from monks to laity, that Dr. Fedotov now regards as the “social tragedy” of Russia.

Professor Frank's anthology[†] was produced in Russian and is now translated into English and will serve as an interesting introduction to one of the most interesting Russian theologians of the nineteenth century.

Vladimir Solovyov (1853-1900) was in many ways a contradictory character. Standing at one time on the left wing of the Slavophils, he became outstanding among the Orthodox in his desire for *rapprochement* with what he saw as the more practical Church of Rome. His own attempts to produce this end led to nothing, and, although he remained himself on the periphery of the Church, in his latter days he said much of the betrayal of its principles by the Church and saw the real Church in those who were prepared to practise the truth.

The result is a tendency on more sides than one to use Solovyov for their own purposes, as we see from publications varying from that of the Roman Catholic, D'Herbigny, through translations of an anti-Tolstoyan—pacifist book in 1915 and 1916, to the present emigration—Orthodox work of Frank, with its conclusion [Introduction, pages 28, 29] that here is a message of importance “especially for the Western world, the significance of which can hardly be exaggerated”. The message amounts to this: “that Christ's revelation does not promise the victory of the good over evil within the confines of 'this world', and that we must live in the expectation of the end of the world . . .”.

Yet how unfair this is to Solovyov any reader, even of this anthology, will see, for

while nobody will read it without disagreeing with one or other aspect of Solovyov's thought, on the other hand all will see in it the work of a rich humanitarian deeply concerned with the fate of this world and the people who inhabit it. The man who in the Russia of the Tsars denounced capital punishment as “barbaric” can hardly be claimed as a progenitor of the men of the atom bomb. Indeed, how far Solovyov stood from the theories which buttress the anti-Soviet Christians of today can be gauged from these words [pages 70, 71]:

“The unbelieving promoters of modern progress acted for the benefit of true Christianity, undermining the false mediaeval world-conception with its anti-Christian dogmatism, individualism and spiritualism. They could not injure Christ by their disbelief, but they have injured material nature which many of them were championing. Against the pseudo-Christian spiritualism which regards nature as an evil principle, they put forth another equally false view that nature is lifeless matter and a soulless machine. And earthly nature, as though offended by this double untruth, refuses to feed mankind. This is the common danger which ought to unite the believers and the unbelievers. It is time that both recognised their solidarity with mother-earth and saved it from deadness, in order to save themselves from death as well. But what solidarity can we have with the earth, how can we have a moral relation to one another? The progressive unbelievers are trying—as best they can—to create such a solidarity, and to some extent they have succeeded. Those who call themselves Christians do not believe in their success, spitefully find fault with their efforts and resist them. It is easy to blame other people and to hinder them. Try to do better yourselves, to create a living, social, universal Christianity.”

STANLEY EVANS.

LYSENKO IS RIGHT

THE subject matter and style of this booklet* are as direct as its title. The author has been converted to Michurinism and he tells us why in forthright fashion. That his was no overnight conversion is made clear at several places in the text where he refers to his own earlier opinions. Thus he now sees that to try to reconcile the two sides is to adopt “a position which in fact, though not necessarily in intention, supported Mendel-Morganism” (page 40). He now appreciates the error in trying “to understand their [the Michurinists—D.M.R.] generalisations in terms of experiments arranged so that chromosome variation is the decisive factor” (page 56). Clearly this book is the outcome of hard study and intense discussion and it bears the stamp of these throughout.

[†]A SOLOVYOV ANTHOLOGY. Ed.: S. L. Frank. (S.C.M. Press, 18s.)

*LYSENKO IS RIGHT. By James Fyfe. (Lawrence & Wishart, 2s. 6d.)

Fyfe does much more for English readers than to summarise the proceedings of the Soviet discussions or to expound the views of Michurin biologists. He fits this material into a general argument that is original both in presentation and in content. Seeing in the theory of the gene a sophisticated twentieth-century variety of the scholastic doctrine of essential substances, he recalls that history has witnessed the demolition of successive versions of this doctrine with each major advance in science. He shows that the scholastic doctrine is foreign to the correct handling of practical problems and from this angle introduces his readers to the opposing conceptions of practice and heredity in the Michurinist and Mendelian viewpoints.

There may be some criticism of this booklet among biologists because it does not discuss Michurin biology from the standpoint of experimental results. Yet such criticism would be unfair, since the author's aim is simply to lay bare the fundamental differences between the two conceptions, differences which give rise to experiments asking completely different kinds of questions about nature. Fyfe brings out these fundamental differences very ably indeed. He then goes on to show that the whole question can only be fully understood in relation to the new situation of biology under Socialism. Further that the hostility of Western critics can only be understood in relation to cold-war politics.

I am not certain that Fyfe's attempt to deal with the role of the chromosomes in heredity from a Michurinist standpoint is a success. Yet he is to be commended for making his own contribution on this point which does worry biologists. However, he might ask himself if this worry is not simply a reflection of the extent to which the chromosomes have become identified with heredity in the minds of biologists themselves. On the question of mutual aid within a species, he seems to have misread Lysenko, a fact which underlines how unfamiliar we are with the practical problems out of which the general problem of intraspecific relations has arisen.

These are small points to criticise in an essay that is so admirable within the limits set, for it must be remembered that it is directed to specialists and laymen alike, a formidable undertaking. The whole is enlivened by pithy comments which bring some of the great questions involved into bold relief. I particularly liked his complete answer (in parentheses) to Malthusians of all ages: "As if all people do for food is to sit with their mouths open waiting for it to drop in" (page 51). All in all, this booklet strikes a new note in current Socialist literature and its author emerges as a gifted pamphleteer.

D. M. ROSS.

STANISLAVSKY

"THE theatre has ceased to be an academy and has been transformed into a place of cheap entertainment. . . . The only solution for the actor is self-criticism, which is only possible if the actor is able to obtain a definite and precise idea about his work, create an ideal towards which he should aspire, and find in himself sufficient strength to scorn cheap success. To mount the pedestal of fully earned artistic fame, the actor must, in addition to his purely artistic endowments, become an ideal man." This is what Stanislavsky said in *Artistic Notes* of 1889: he speaks from a world in which the spectacle of young actors fighting for success through publicity agents, the opening of baby shows and the judging of beauty competitions would have seemed not so much disgusting as incredible. For Stanislavsky was no lone voice. He came to his system through long years in which he painfully assimilated many influences, made many false starts, and conquered deep and diverse personal weaknesses. Chronic hypochondria; an inadequate education; little feeling for great literature; vanity and shyness; addictions to finnicky realism and the operatic romanticism of Spanish boots and rapier; a taste, long indulged, for dictatorial production depending on crowd manipulation and *coups de théâtre*; these were some of the handicaps he overcame. His long pilgrim's progress to artistic and personal triumph was befriended by the advice, work, and criticism of Chekhov, Gorky, Ostrovsky; by his uneasy partnership with Nemirovich-Danchenko; by Rossi's dictum "Teach yourself"; by daily work and study in the theatre throughout the whole of his life; and finally by the coming to power of the Bolshevik party, which gave him security and the highest honours.

Stanislavsky has suffered in England more from his friends than his enemies. He has been presented to us often with an uncritical enthusiasm as a system-monger with a difference, as the man who always has a winner in a sealed envelope, as a teacher who can put you on the short route to success. Here* we see how ridiculous his would-be disciples have made him, and how unlike himself. He appears as a man of the purest integrity who moved steadily through one practical experience after another from an uneasy dogmatism to a mature, wise and tolerant theory that included all the multifarious human ways of approach that lead to the living vitality we can legitimately call Good Theatre.

The book is based on a collection of documents recently published in Moscow. Magarshak takes us through the master's life and work at a steady pace, correcting a widely held inaccuracy here and undermining a prejudice there. He avoids any

* STANISLAVSKY: A LIFE. By David Magarshak, MacGibbon and Kee. 2ls.

personal comment or slanting, and this is a virtue; but he carries it rather too far in giving as much space to the trivialities and *longueurs* as to the emotional, intellectual, economic and political crises that shaped Stanislavsky and his "System". It was delightful to read of the great Stanislavsky making a high-art hit of a "Japanese operetta called *The Mikado*", but I regretted the scantiness of information given about the years after 1917. The volume, like all the work of this publishing house, is beautifully produced.

R.D.S.

FACTS TRIUMPH OVER FANCY

THIS booklet* is like a chess-board with clearly defined squares: the white are facts and the black fancy. On the one hand it gives well-documented chronologies of the post-war trade relationship between the Soviet Union and the People's Democracies. On their own, these conclusively demonstrate the tremendous help received by the latter. Alternating with these are pathetic hints at Soviet "domination" and "economic exploitation", attributed to unidentified "private sources".

Czechoslovakia is dealt with at the greatest length. The development of its commercial relations with the USSR is traced from the first agreement of September 1945 to that of October 1948, during which period the value of exchanges multiplied nine times. Czechoslovakia was receiving greatly expanded quantities of essential raw materials in exchange for exports of which the proportion of consumer goods steadily rose and that of machinery fell. Even Dr. Ripka the émigré is quoted to reaffirm the statement of Dr. Ripka, Minister of Foreign Trade, that Soviet prices, conditions of payment and various concessions were "very advantageous to Czechoslovakia".

With Poland the pattern is similar, and mention is made of the several Soviet credits to that country, including \$450 million for the purchase of industrial equipment and metallurgical plant. Furthermore, "increased imports of raw materials from the USSR . . . will help to increase output, the standard of living, and foreign trade in general".

The real beginning of industrialisation in Bulgaria, it is shown, has resulted from Soviet trade, and in return chiefly for tobacco and wine. Typical is the agreement of August 1947 when "the Soviet Union agreed to supply equipment for a mineral fertiliser plant, a power station, and an installation for the partial coking of coal, and to render technical assistance in the installation of these plants".

Again, with Hungary and Rumania, the

* SOVIET TRADE WITH EASTERN EUROPE, 1945-1949. By Margaret Dewar. Royal Institute of International Affairs. 8s. 6d.

USSR supplied up to 90% of their industrial raw materials and very significant quantities of machine tools, oil-drilling equipment and agricultural machinery. In both cases, accounts are given of the substantial successive reductions in reparations and occupation costs, credits, suspended payments and other concessions to these ex-enemy countries by the Soviet Union. Yet the writer sees sinister "exploitation" and "domination" in the Soviet-Hungarian and Sovrom companies. In support of this she cites Yugoslavia's complaint, made in the UN in October 1949, about mixed companies in that country. But if the proof is to rest on such an analogy, the validity of this charge and its worth as circumstantial evidence may be gauged by recalling a similar outburst two months later by Vladimir Dedijer claiming that "through their pressure the Soviet leaders have prevented the construction of heavy industry in Bulgaria, thus holding the country at the level of an agrarian land, as a source of materials for Soviet industry". The facts in this booklet alone abundantly disprove this calculated nonsense, and show the reverse to be true.

The treatment of Yugoslav trade relations with the USSR is remarkably brief, and the various agreements are rapidly skimmed over. Little reference is made to the contribution of Soviet deliveries to Yugoslavia's post-war reconstruction (exalted by Yugoslavia at the time), but significantly there is no attempt to substantiate the slander that Soviet policy was to keep it a backward country.

It is unfortunate, if not curious, that Chatham House found it necessary to let more than a year elapse between the completion of this "study" and its publication. Much has taken place even in that short time which effectively answers the doubts and "private sources" "considered reliable". Referring to Czech-Polish co-operation and the expansion of the industrial complex in the Silesian-Moravian area, the writer tells us that a serious obstacle is "the Soviet Government's distrust for large economic (and potentially political) conglomerations not run by themselves". Yet in May of last year construction was started on a huge iron and steel foundry near Cracow, close to the great Silesian coalfields, which will have an output in excess of Poland's entire pre-war production; the equipment for this is being supplied on credit by the Soviet Union.

We are warned: "The needs of the Eastern European countries for capital goods and raw materials, on which fulfilment of their plans depends, are greater than the USSR's capacity to supply them." But Czechoslovak industry has flourished; last year engineering production was 15.6% over the 1949 level, instead of the originally planned 12.3%. Concurrently, foreign trade with the West was decreased to 45%

of the total in 1950, whereas at the time this prediction was made this sector was planned to be still as much as 55% in 1953.

As for the Yugoslavs, they have "succeeded in averting an economic breakdown and disaster by expanding their trade with the Western world". Last New Year's Eve Tito acknowledged that his five-year plan had failed. In an attempt to stave off famine and revolt, he has now traded his army of thirty divisions for American beans and flour to feed them.

In several places the writer has characterised various Soviet agreements, all clearly beneficial to the people's democracies, as "compensation for non-participation in the Marshall Plan". But the past year has also shown conclusively just what this "aid" has meant. What country in Western Europe can point today to anything approaching balanced accounts (an important test of economic stability) with the U.S., or freedom to trade with East as well as West (cf. British exports to China, Poland)? Which is assured of expanding supplies of raw materials, dependable markets, a steadily rising standard of living made possible by increasing production and availability of consumer goods at progressively lower prices, and an economy geared to peace?

It is certainly not "undominated" Britain; but all this is true of the "satellites" in the East. Time is rapidly running out for those who denigrate the value of trade with the Soviet Union. Today the facts speak more loudly than ever.

LEWIS BRYANT.

A SCIENTIFIC-TECHNICAL DICTIONARY

VERY few specialised Russian-English dictionaries are available in this country, though a great demand for such books exists. As the compiler of this work* points out in his preface, the English-speaking countries show "an ever-increasing interest in the scientific activity in the Soviet Union".

Mr. Bray's dictionary is designed as an aid to research-workers, technicians, translators and so on, and is intended to supplement the existing Russian-English dictionaries and not to replace them. He has therefore limited the scope of his vocabulary by excluding for the most part words that have no specific technical or scientific meaning and can be found in an ordinary dictionary. Though it contains fewer entries than, for example, Callahan's *Russian-English Technical and Chemical Dictionary*, it includes a number of tech-

*A RUSSIAN-ENGLISH SCIENTIFIC-TECHNICAL DICTIONARY. Compiled and edited by A. Bray. (International Universities Press, New York: Allen and Unwin, 50s.)

nical expressions and compound terms not easily found elsewhere.

The work would have been improved if the current Russian spelling, as used in modern Soviet dictionaries, had been adopted, or alternatively cross-references made from forms not generally used. We find, for instance, in addition to the usual spellings such as *khrapovoi tzentrifuga tisterna*, such forms as *khrapovyi tzentrifuga sisterna*—some of which appear to have been included on the strength of their being "seemingly preferred by Russian seamen"—which are not mentioned as alternatives in Ushakov's *Tolkovery Slovar Russkogo Yazyka* (4 vols., Moscow, 1935-1940), or in the more recent single-volume *Slovar Russkogo Yazyka* edited by S. P. Obnarsky (Moscow, 1949).

Nevertheless, this book goes a good way towards meeting the demand for specialised Russian-English reference books in this country.

S.R.

BOOKS RECEIVED

SCIENTIFIC RUSSIAN. By J. W. Perry. (Interscience Publishers, \$7.50.)

THE DARLING AND OTHER STORIES, and THE DUEL AND OTHER STORIES. By A. Tchekhov [Chekhov]. (Chatto and Windus, 7s. 6d. each.)

THE HERO OF HIS TIME. By Henry Gifford. (Edward Arnold, 12s. 6d.)

THE RUSSIAN CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY, 1917. By O. H. Radkey. (Harvard University Press and Geoffrey Cumberlege, \$2.50 or 10s.)

WOMEN AND COMMUNISM: Selections. (Lawrence and Wishart, 3s. 6d.)

JOURNALS AND PAMPHLETS RECEIVED

MASSES AND MAINSTREAM, Dec. 1950 and Jan. 1951. (New Century, 20 cents.)

POLITICAL AFFAIRS, Jan. 1951. (New Century, 25 cents.)

SOCIALISM MEANS PROSPERITY. (Soviet News, 1d.)

SOVIET STUDIES, Jan. 1951. (Blackwell, 7s. 6d.)

THE CHURCH DEMANDS PEACE. By Bishop M. Novak. (Religion and the People, 6d.)

MANCHESTER FILM SEASON

IT MAY BE that Manchester is more fortunate than most provincial centres in that a small comfortable theatre, seating ninety people, normally used for trade shows, was available; we feel, however, that details of this example of local activity will be of value to other provincial members.



DETAILS of the programmes, preparation of which was of course started well in advance of the film season, are given below.

Autumn 1950: CLASSICS series

SEPTEMBER 29: *EISENSTEIN Evening*. **Records:** pot-pourri of film and ballet music. **Speakers:** Miss Judith Todd, SCR Secretary—"Introducing SCR"; Mr. Sidney Cole, of Ealing Film Studios—"Eisenstein's Place in the Cinema". Excerpts from the early Eisenstein films, *The Battleship Potemkin*, *The General Line*, and *October*. **Main film:** *IVAN THE TERRIBLE*.

OCTOBER 13: **Records:** *Classical Symphony in D Major* (Op. 25), S. S. Prokofiev; *Symphonic Suite "Masquerade"*, A. I. Khachaturian. **Colour Cartoon:** *Tale of an Old Oak*. **Speaker:** Mr. A. Dressler, of Leeds University—"The Background of the Film *Masquerade*". **Film:** *MASQUERADE* (S. Gerasimov).

OCTOBER 27: **Records:** *Gayaneh Ballet Suite*, A. I. Khachaturian. **Colour Cartoon:** *The Champion*. **Speaker:** Dr. M. Ruhemann, formerly of Kharkov Physico-Technical Institute—"V. I. Chapayev". **Film:** *CHAPAYEV* (G. and S. Vassiliev).

NOVEMBER 10: **Records:** *Piano Concerto No. 3 in C Major* (Op. 26), S. S. Prokofiev. **Colour Cartoon:** *The Lion and the Hare*. **Speaker:** Mr. R. Bellamy, of Leeds University—"The Background of the Film." **Film:** *LENIN IN 1918* (M. Romm). (This film was substituted for *THE LAST NIGHT* (Y. Raisman).)

NOVEMBER 24: **Records:** Pot-pourri of opera and ballet music. **Colour Cartoons:** *Mashenka's Concert*, and *Polkan and Shavka*. **Speaker:** Mr. J. Dawson, of Merseyside Unity Theatre—"N. Shchors". **Film:** *SHCHORS* (A. Dovzhenko).

DECEMBER 8: **Records:** *Peter and the Wolf* (Op. 67), S. S. Prokofiev. **Speaker:** Mrs. Beatrice King, Chairman of SCR Education Section—"Soviet Children's Films". **Films:** *LAND OF TOYS* (V. Obraztsov) and *THE NEW GULLIVER* (A. Ptushko).

Spring 1950: MODERNS series

January 19 *GENERAL SUVOROV* (V. I. Pudovkin and M. Doller).
February 2: *ADVENTURES IN BOKHARA* (Y. Protozanov).
February 16: *RAINBOW* (M. Donskoi and R. Perelstein).
March 2: *THE TURNING POINT* (F. Ermller).
March 16: *ACADEMICIAN IVAN PAVLOV* (G. Roshal).
March 30: [the most recent Soviet film available].



THE expectation that a film season would in itself be a sufficient attraction to bring together members and friends, and provide a fund from which other activities could be inaugurated, has been fully justified. SCR membership has doubled, a number of former members have rejoined, and there is now a nucleus of old and new members who are prepared to help in organising other activities, such as musical evenings, lectures, discussions, Russian conversation groups, and so on.

The SCR aims at providing for groups of provincial members that type of activity in which they are interested. It is hoped that the film season described above will encourage an extension of such activities, and the Society will be happy to receive requests and suggestions from provincial members.

—R. BARSTOW

CORRECTIONS

ASJ XI, 3 (Autumn 1950): In the article *Pros and Cons of Co-Education*, the opening sentence (p. 4) should read: "In September 1943 co-education began to disappear from 10-year and 7-year schools in large industrial towns and administrative centres in the Soviet Union." (The majority of schools in the Soviet Union did not change, but remained co-educational throughout.)

ASJ XI, 4 (Winter 1950/1951): 1. In

the article *Medical Science in the Soviet Union* (page 39, paragraph 4, line 5) for "first Russian Marxist" read "great Russian materialist."

2. In the notes to the article *An Important Contribution to the Study of Animal Cells* (page 44, last item, third line from end) for "O. B. Lepeshinskaya" read "O. P. Lepeshinskaya". (O. P. Lepeshinskaya is the daughter of O. B. Lepeshinskaya.)

SCR ACTIVITIES

THE Winter 1950-51 season proved fertile in SCR activities over a wide range of interests, as will be seen from the following notes on the various Sections and Groups.

ARCHITECTURE GROUP: A special bulletin (No. 27) has been issued, collating the most recent information on the various large-scale construction schemes at present being undertaken in the USSR. An informal gathering was held on February 28, when recent visitors to the USSR gave their impressions of current Soviet building.

CHESS SECTION: The recent eighteenth Championship of the USSR was dealt with in Bulletin No. 31, and preparations are being made to cover the forthcoming match for the World Championship between Mikhail Botvinnik and David Bronstein. The Section again entered a team in the National Club Championship of the British Chess Federation, but after a victory of 4-2 over Ealing "A", defeat was once more sustained at the hands of Athenaeum "A". Those who played for the SCR were: William Winter, R. G. Wade, B. Reilly, J. Gilchrist, H. Woolverton, C. P. Dutt and L. S. Penrose.

EDUCATION: The Section joined with the History Committee in holding an informal reception on December 27 to Pavel Lysogor, Ivan Sibridko and A. Alekhin, members of a Ukrainian delegation visiting Britain at the invitation of the Scottish-USSR Society. On February 23 a meeting on *Soviet Universities* was held in the Anatomy Theatre, University College, London, the speakers being Professor C. L. Wrenn and Mr. Andrew Rothstein, with Mr. Henry Gifford presiding. A discussion on *The Basis and Purpose of Soviet Education*, led by Mr. Brian Simon and Miss Deana Levin, was planned for March 6. Material continues to come in from English schools for the exhibition on English education being prepared for transmission to the USSR.

FILM SECTION: Further performances in the Festival Season held in conjunction with the London Film Club at the Royal Empire Society cinema were given as follows: December 20, *Storm Over Asia* (re-issued version with sound track); January 31, *The Childhood of Maxim Gorki*; February 21, *Chapayev*. A screening of *Zhukovsky*, Pudovkin's latest film, was held on February 7 at 18 Kensington Palace Gardens, by courtesy of the Soviet Embassy, and one of *Kuban Cossacks* arranged for March 20. The Section has arranged with the film section of VOKS a most useful exchange of stills from British and Soviet films.

HISTORY COMMITTEE: In addition to the reception on December 27 (see under *Education Section* above), the Committee arranged on February 3 a lecture by Mr. Christopher Hill on *The Teaching of English History in the Soviet Union*; Mr. Andrew Rothstein presided. The SCR Library has now issued a handlist of its Russian holdings on world, Russian and Soviet history: copies are available on request.

LEGAL SECTION: Two bulletins have been issued, No. 14 dealing with *The Soviet Law of Defamation* and containing also notes on the lecture delivered by Mr. D. N. Pritt on November 8; and No. 15 a translation of an article by B. S. Nikiforov on *Is the Profit Motive a Necessary Element in Theft?*

MUSIC SECTION: Prokofiev's recent opera *War and Peace* was the subject of a lecture-recital by Mr. Alan Bush given on January 21; illustrative passages were sung by Gordon Holdom (baritone) and Ethel Lyon (soprano). A sub-committee is selecting contemporary British works with a view to an exchange concert with the Union of Soviet Composers. Through the courtesy of VOKS, the Section has been lent a Soviet-made tape-recorder or "magnetophone", on which it will be possible to hear performances of new Soviet works recorded as played in the USSR. The first concert of these recordings was arranged for March 12, and the Section's Bulletin No. 7 was a translation of a Soviet article dealing with the principles and uses of the "magnetophone".

SCIENCE SECTION: Papers were contributed by Dr. Leonard Crome, Mr. David Newth, Dr. J. S. Horn and Mr. Ruscoe Clark to a discussion held under the auspices of the MEDICAL COMMITTEE on January 29, with Mr. A. W. L. Kessel in the chair. The Section prepared for this occasion translations of Academician K. M. Bykov's opening statement on *The Development of I. P. Pavlov's Views* given at the Joint Session of the Academy of Sciences and the Academy of Medical Sciences in June 1950, and of a paper by O. B. Lepeshinskaya on *The Development of Living Processes in the Pre-Cellular Period*.

THEATRE SECTION: Continuing its series of modern Soviet plays, the Section gave on February 25 a reading of A. Sofronov's *The Moscow Character*, directed by David Dawson; those taking part were Joss Ackland, David Dawson, Archie Duncan, Sybil Ewbank, Betty Henderson, Tonia

Hildreth, Jack Hislop, Miriam Karlin, Pauline Loring, Bernard Rebel, Herbert Roland and Jack Stewart. The next reading, of Alexander Korneichuk's latest play, *The Hawthorn Grove*, a lyrical rural comedy, has been arranged for April 29.

WRITERS' GROUP: Professor C. L. Wrenn gave on January 9 an address on his recent visit to the USSR; Dr. Bertha Malnick was in the chair. A brains trust on *British Book-Reviewing and Literary Criticism* was planned for March 13, in an attempt to answer the request from the Union of Soviet Writers transmitted by Mr. Alexei Surkov. The selection of recent English publications for transmission to VOKS and to the Union of Soviet Writers has

been continued. The TRANSLATORS' GROUP has made a successful start with its scheme for translating contents pages of Soviet journals (see announcement below).

GENERAL NOTES: An address on his recent visit to the USSR was given by Mr. Leslie Hurry on December 13. The annual New Year's Eve party was enjoyed by a record number of members and friends. The fortnightly Russian conversation evenings were resumed after the Christmas recess. Commander E. P. Young attended in January the congress of the *Gesellschaft für Deutsche-Sowjetische Freundschaft*. The Exhibition Department has received a number of valuable new pictorial sets (see announcement on page 50).

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THE TRADE UNIONS OF THE USSR. THIRTY-THIRD ANNIVERSARY OF THE USSR. LIFE AND WORK OF THE DONBAS MINERS. BUDYONNY COLLECTIVE FARM (UKRAINE). MACHINE AND TRACTOR STATIONS IN THE USSR. THE SOVIET REPUBLICS (sets of forty photographs each, 12in. x 16in.). (*Average size of photographs, 16in. x 20in.*).

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A full catalogue of all visual aid material may be obtained from the Exhibition Department of SCR.

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SCR PUBLICATIONS

ANGLO-SOVIET CHESS MATCH, 1947: Complete record of the over-the-board match. Edited by William Winter. Games annotated by G. M. Levenfish. Price 5s. (post 3d.).

ARCHITECTURE OF THE USSR: A fully illustrated booklet prepared by the Architecture and Planning Group for the recent exhibition at the RIBA, giving historical background and contemporary development. Price 1s. (post 2d.).

BOOK LIST ON THE USSR: Prepared by the SCR for the National Book League. Indicates some of the best-known books which have appeared during the period from late 1942 to early 1947, and supplements the previous list published in 1942. Price 10d., post free.

BRITISH CULTURAL WORKERS REPORT ON USSR: Joint letter to the President of VOKS from Professor C. I. Wrenn, Mr. Leslie Hurry and Mr. Andrew Rothstein, on their return from a visit to the USSR in November 1950 as an SCR Delegation. Free on request (post 2½d.).

EISENSTEIN COMMEMORATION: A souvenir programme in book form, with articles by Paul Rotha, Ivor Montagu, John Grierson, Marie Seton, Herbert Marshall. Fully illustrated by superb stills. Price now 1s. (post 3d.).

RUSSIAN PAINTING, 1700-1917: by Jack Chen. A historical commentary on the development of painting in Russia, essential to an understanding of the contemporary Soviet School. With fourteen illustrations Price 1s. (postage 2d.) from SCR Exhibition Department.

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